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ABSTRACT

A collection of works on problems of and techniques for teaching Asian immigrant children in Great Britain includes an introduction (R. P. Sloss); background information on the Chinese in Britain (H. D. R. Baker); background on the Vietnamese in Britain (P. J. Honey); "Teaching English as a Second Language with Suggestions for Chinese Children" (M. Leclerc); and "Language Difficulties for Cantonese-Speaking Pupils" (R. C. Hunt and So Yan Kin), with notes on Vietnamese (J. H. Davidson), and including notes on common errors in grammar and phonetics and a list of references. Appended materials include a suggested language structure syllabus for grades 1-6 and a guide to language structure and list of verb patterns for secondary level pupils, both extracted from "The Threshhold Level for Modern Language Learning in Schools" of the Council of Europe. (MSE)

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Teaching Chinese Children

A Teacher's Guide

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Foreword

The Nuffield Chinese Children's project was set up in 1977 in response to the concern expressed by many people about the problems facing the 20,000 or so Chinese children in British schools. The Chinese population in Britain is geographically dispersed and Chinese children were finding their way, in ones and twos, into schools which in many cases had little or no experience of dealing with non-English speaking pupils. Teachers in these schools were conscious of their lack of knowledge of the backgrounds of their Chinese pupils. They expressed a desire to know more about suitable techniques and materials for teaching English to pupils for whom it was not the first language and they wanted to know more about the source of their pupils' language difficulties. Why, for example, do many Chinese children find it difficult to phrase and to answer questions correctly? This book is an attempt to give some practical guidance in these three areas. The Introduction, by Wing Commander R P Sloss, outlines some of the problems facing the Chinese community and describes the philosophy behind the project and this book. Chapter 1, by Dr H D R Baker, describes in more detail the background of the Chinese community in Britain and its relationship to life in Hong Kong, the country of origin of most Chinese in Britain. Chapter 2, by Marcel Leclerc, contains a wealth of information about methods, materials and techniques for teaching English as a second language. Chapter 3, by Reg Hunt and So Yan Kin, explains some of the linguistic difficulties facing Cantonese speakers attempting to learn English. Finally, an Appendix contains the primary and secondary syllabuses for English used in Hong Kong. (These are reproduced by kind permission of the Hong Kong Department of Education.)

While this book was still in its early stages the first Vietnamese refugees began to arrive in this country. At the time of writing it is still not known how many will eventually arrive but the figure will certainly exceed 10,000. What is clear is that the backgrounds and circumstances of the Vietnamese refugees are dramatically different from those of the Hong Kong Chinese in Britain. Nevertheless the Vietnamese language has much in common with Cantonese and many of the Vietnamese are native Cantonese speakers. Thus, while the social difficulties encountered in adapting to this new country are quite different in the two cases, the languages spoken by the two groups have much in common, and the difficulties facing teachers are in many ways similar. In an ideal world it might have been preferable to have prepared another Guide, specifically for teachers of Vietnamese-speaking pupils. In practice, given the similarities of the language and the constraints of time, it was hoped that a useful and acceptable solution would be to add to the present Guide so that it could be used for pupils of Vietnamese origin as well as for those from Hong Kong. Fortunately Paddy Honey and Jeremy Davidson of the School of Oriental and African Studies in London were able and willing to undertake the task. Paddy Honey's section, on the background to the Vietnamese in Britain, appears in Chapter 1. Jeremy Davidson's comments on important points of difference between Vietnamese and Cantonese, appear in Chapters 2 and 3.

In the course of this project a great many people have given freely and generously of their time. Thanks are due in particular to Dr Hugh Baker, Mrs Muriel Burnett, Miss Gillian Davies, Miss Edie Garvie, Stephen Harlow, David Ladlow, Reg Hunt, Marcel Leclerc, So Yan Kin and Mrs Hazel Wigmore, who served on the Committee under the Chairmanship of Wing Commander R P Sloss; to Paddy Honey and Jeremy Davidson for their contributions to the book; to Liz Williams, who edited the book and to Richard Doust, who designed the book; to John Trim and Mrs June Geach of CILT; to Dr Abraham Lue, Dennis Chow, Mrs Joy Wong, Victor Chann, David Robertson and the late Mrs Josephine Aistrop, who gave help and advice; to Ted O'Connor and to the Extra-Mural Department of the School of Oriental and African Studies in the University of London for providing a home for the project for the 1977-78 academic year; to the Hong Kong Government Office for providing a wealth of materials and information on Hong Kong immigrants in the UK; to the Advisory Inspectorate and the Hong Kong Education Department for providing a great deal of help and material, and in particular for giving permission to reproduce the Hong Kong primary and secondary English syllabuses as appendices to this book; to the Council of Europe for permission to reproduce material from *The Threshold Level for Modern Language Learning in Schools*; to Raymond Huang, President of Lingnan College, Hong Kong, for his expert advice and help; to the Language Centre, University of Hong Kong; to Oxford University Press and to Longmans for their help in providing specimen copies of text books and finally, but by no means least, to all the teachers who answered questionnaires, commented on the draft of this Guide and contributed in other ways to its production.

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Introduction

Wing Commander R P Sloss

It is never easy to leave one's own community with all the relationships and values to which one has been born and to have to face life in another society, often one with a bewilderingly different set of social values, a totally different cultural heritage and, worst of all, a completley different and strange language. Bad enough, but not so bad, if one is an adult, possibly working on familiar tasks with others from 'back home', but worse, much worse, if one is a child thrust into full contact with this new world as an isolated alien in the classroom and playground at school. Everything is new, puzzling and potentially hostile; altogether a very frightening experience, made all the more so because the newcomer often has little or no knowledge of the language which he or she hears all around from teachers and fellow-pupils alike. This situation, the new non-British child in one of our schools, has been played out in Britain countless times in recent years with successive waves of immigrant children from the West Indies, the Indian subcontinent, from Africa, and from many other lands. These are children whose parents, whether from economic or political necessity, have come to make their lives among us. Very fortunately, our education system has responded with appropriate measures within the means and time available. Schemes for training teachers in the skills to meet the needs of these children have been set up. Larger-scale projects have produced special graded teaching materials matched to the linguistic needs and cultural backgrounds of particular immigrant groups and special teaching units have been set up in the larger LEAs and in urban centres to assist immigrant children make the difficult transition to full participation in the mainstream learning in our schools. While it can never be enough, and while more will always remain to be done, all of this has been considerably to the credit of those who perceived the nature and extent of the need and who took active steps to meet it. Their foresight and sensitivity had made them conscious of how important the successful integration of these new communities would be, not only for the happiness of the children themselves and for the provision of educational and other skills that will enable them to play a useful part in the future life of our society, but also for the longer-term stability and prosperity of the entire British community.

It has been entirely natural that during a period in which waves of immigration have taken place, attention should have been focused on the major groups of immigrants while other, numerically smaller, groups of immigrants, whose situation may well have been less dramatic, may have received less attention. Included in this latter category are the Chinese immigrants whose number has quietly but steadily increased in recent years. We have long had Chinese among us, but until recent years their numbers have been insignificant. Such as were here have been found almost exclusively in London and other major seaports, and then rarely as families. Even today, in comparison with the other immigrant groups, the number of Chinese is still relatively small. But unlike the others and unlike the miniscule community of Chinese seamen, laundrymen and a very few restaurateurs of the past, they are now to be found widely dispersed throughout all parts of Britain, uniquely restricted (in this generation) to the restaurant and take-away food business. They have become an unobtrusive, but important, part of the contemporary British scene, and the variety added to the British diet by their skills has already become almost commonplace.

But simply because this quiet, industrious and friendly group has a particular genius for fitting into our society by concentrating on minding its own business, and minding it very well, perhaps less attention than was due has hitherto been given to the problems which face Chinese immigrants, and more particularly their children, when they make difficult transition from life in a Chinese society to life in our own, Western one. The problems of the other, major, immigrant groups are more obvious and more readily acknowledged, partly because their numbers are greater, but more importantly because they have tended to gather in a limited number of well-defined areas where, because community and educational resources and personnel can be concentrated, ways of solving their problems can more effectively be brought to bear. Also, other immigrant communities have been more conscious of their corporate identity and so have appeared more ready to organise themselves to articulate their needs and problems. It is only within the recent past that the Chinese community has, with its increasing numbers, begun to take on a social as well as a business rôle. In part this change has resulted from a growing realisation among them that Britain, contrary to their earlier expectations and instincts, may, after all, come to be regarded as a *permanent* home, as opposed to being merely a temporary place of residence pending an eventual return to the Far East. As well as the single Chinese immigrants of the past, preponderantly men who really did look forward to an eventual return home, we now have the new phenomenon of entire Chinese families, complete with children, taking up what must increasingly be regarded as long-term residence in Britain. As a natural outcome, we also have a new generation of children, born in this country, who have known no other home. Whether these families ever intended to stay, or whether this is really what they want (and this, it must be acknowledged, must always remain an [illegible] question), the Chinese among us are here to stay and are beginning to establish permanent roots in our society.

Two years ago the Nuffield Foundation took the initiative by establishing a small *ad-hoc* committee to examine the nature and extent of the problems faced by Chinese children in our schools. The Foundation had been encouraged to do so by reports from teachers of immigrant children in various parts of the country that these children represented a small, but significant group whose needs were not the same as those of the other, larger groups and whose problems were, in certain respects, uniquely acute. The parents of these children mostly came from Hong Kong, and many possessed no English whatsoever. The parents were almost exclusively in the restaurant or take-away food business, and many worked long hours, often with only minimal contact with the British community. The nature of their businesses was such that the parents and their children very often formed the only non-native families in areas remote from the big cities, and the children were frequently the only non-British children in otherwise all-British school populations. Teachers were concerned that these shy, apparently unresponsive and overly well-behaved children were totally isolated from normal British life both at school and out of school hours. They appeared in many cases to have great difficulty with English, and these difficulties were unlike those encountered with other immigrant children. To make matters worse, many of the teachers who faced the problems posed by these strange, silent newcomers, were themselves unfamiliar with the social and family backgrounds from which the children came, and lacking in any training or experience in English as a second language (E2L). This was the extent of the problem as it presented itself. The task of the committee was to elucidate the problem by obtaining as many facts and opinions as possible, and to take such steps as appeared reasonable, and were within its powers, to help in this situation.

One of the results of the work of the committee is this Guide. Its purpose, quite simply, is to help teachers who are faced with the task of teaching Chinese children, by providing them with the kind of information which our studies have shown to be likely to be useful. We have been concerned not to provide too much, nor to indulge in excessive detail, for we are aware just how busy teachers are and of the great many responsibilities laid upon them. At the same time, we have tried to ensure that the information provided is sufficiently open-ended, so that those teachers who wish to pursue any of the topics in the Guide to greater depth can do so with the minimum of difficulty. It is difficult to reconcile these aims, and we apologise in advance to those who feel that for any reason we have failed to do so. The present Guide has passed through several drafts and has been amended in the light of criticism and suggestions most helpfully made by teachers, and others active in this field. It is our hope that further feed-back will result from the publication of this latest, more definitive version.

It is perhaps necessary to add just one note of caution. It should be our aim to help Chinese children obtain the best our education system can offer so that they may grow into happy, creative and useful adults ready to play their full part as citizens in our society. To enable them to do so, they must be encouraged to learn as much as they can about us, our ways, our history and, in particular, about our language. And successful acquisition of language is the key to all the rest. But in our eagerness to do all these laudable and necessary things we must be very careful not to be seen, whether by intention or simple inadvertance, to be in any way attempting to destroy or dilute their 'Chineseness'. The Chinese are a proud people, justly proud of the long and magnificent cultural history of their nation and most anxious in each generation to ensure that their culture, and the moral values implicit in it, should be passed on intact to their children. This feeling is perhaps particularly intense in the overseas Chinese community who sometimes feel that their values are under attack by what they consider the insidious influences of our Western society. In our eagerness to *integrate,* to *assimilate,* we should always be conscious that in the Chinese home other forces may well be at work, and we must exercise delicacy and tact if we are not to run foul of these other, and justifiable, aims in the education of Chinese children. In this situation there is also an opportunity. We should not be so problem-orientated that we see in these children only a *problem* to be *solved;* they also represent an asset, a resource of unique value. As China reasserts herself as a mighty force in the world in these closing decades of the twentieth century, we have amongst us living exemplars of a society and an age-old civilisation from whom *we* would do well to learn, and whose experiences and culture can serve to enrich our own.

Chapter 1 Background to the Chinese in Britain

Dr H D R Baker
and P J Honey

Traditional Chinese Society

China has a land area larger than that of the United States. Great rivers, mountain ranges, different soils, and a variety of climates ensure that there is no geographical uniformity to the country.

The majority of the Chinese people are descended from a stock which inhabited the basin of the Yellow River in the north of the country. Over the past 3000 years these people have moved out of the homeland in a sporadic series of southward migrations which first settled the landscape in patches, then gradually expanded to fill and dominate the entire area.

The people are no more uniform than the land. The time at which migration occurred, the circumstances which led to the migrations, the demands of the environments into which they moved, and the degree of contact which each group had with others have all left their marks. Throughout China there are differences in dress, in agriculture, in architecture, in customs, and in language which would probably be sufficient in a European situation to give identity to a number of quite separate states.

But like the European situation, there is a cultural unity, a 'Chineseness', which transcends the differences. The hallmarks of Chineseness have been a philosophy based on the family, a settled agricultural economy, a universally applicable written language, and a strong sense of cultural superiority fostered by the inability of any neighbouring people to withstand the attractions of the Chinese way of life.

The Chinese have stressed the importance of the family from earliest times. Confucian philosophers refined and extended family consciousness through a carefully worked out hierarchy of relationships. Most important was the father–son relationship, the son being expected to obey, to serve, to respect and at all times to defer to the father. Modelled on this relationship was that between elder and younger brother, and that between husband and wife. By extension, father–son typified all family relationships between senior and junior generations; elder brother–younger brother, all dealings between seniors and juniors of the same generation; and husband–wife, all male—female relationships.

Ancestor worship was the religion which gave strength and supernatural sanction to the family. When the worldly hold of senior over junior was broken by the death of the senior, belief in his continuing interest in his family from beyond the grave necessitated a continued attitude of respect and service (through ritual sacrifice) on the part of the survivors.

In this way everyone's position in this life and the after-life was rigidly circumscribed and made subject to the greater welfare of the family unit. The individual counted for little, except as the medium of transmission of the family line. The system made for great security within the family, though it stifled the individual freedom and initiative, and made conservatism an absolute virtue.

Further extension of family principles made the Emperor the Son of Heaven, and made his relationship with the people similar to that between father and children. As the senior male in a family was responsible for worshipping his ancestors on behalf of the whole group, so the Emperor was responsible for worshipping Heaven on behalf of the Chinese people.

In this sense, for the 2200 years since the First Emperor succeeded in unifying all China, the Chinese State has been an expression of Chinese cultural unity, riding on the back of the family ethos.

In similar fashion the State took advantage of the Chinese written language. Writing became divorced from speech at a very early stage, and for most of Chinese history the grammar and vocabulary of literature have borne scant resemblance to any language spoken. To learn to write and read, it was necessary to learn virtually another language, and a difficult one at that.

The script of this language did not attempt to represent the sounds of speech: instead it consisted of a vast number of symbols (many of them stylised pictures) each representing one idea. Each symbol had an established *meaning* but no established *reading*, so that once learned it meant the same to all men no matter how they read it out loud. The Chinese symbol 日 means 'sun', and is understandable as such to anyone who has learned it, though a Chinese from Peking would read it *ri*, a Chinese from Canton would read it *yat*, a Japanese *nichi* or *hi*.

Speakers of all the Chinese languages (many of which had become mutually unintelligible) all learned this same written language, and so were able to communicate freely through writing. The State recruited its civil servants through examinations which tested their skill at manipulating the written language. Passing the examination fitted men for operating throughout China rather than being tied to the linguistic area of their birth.

All the great literature of all China, the philosophy, the poetry, and the accumulated knowledge of millenia are recorded in this universal script. Not surprisingly those who were literate, and especially those who had a degree as proof of their literacy, had great prestige. Respect for scholarship has been an enduring Chinese trait: fear of a powerful and unscrupulous bureaucracy has been the other side of the coin.

The State's unifying rôle was an important one, and China has only been prosperous and at peace when there has been a strong centralised government to hold it together. But for the majority of the Chinese people, it is probably fair to say, the State has never been an institution which commanded loyalty. "Heaven is high and the Emperor is far away" as the common saying went. Chinese culture ('Chineseness') and the Chinese State were two quite different ideas. The first was enduring and shared by all, the second fragile and sometimes non-existent.

For the villager it was the family, the neighbours, the village, and the market town which occupied the important places in his outward view. They comprised a more or less self-sufficient world within which was to be found all the companionship, entertainment, religious activity, and livelihood he desired. In this 'cell' he was born and educated, was found a wife, worked, played, prayed and sacrificed, and finally was buried. Within it were found uniform customs, manners, weights and measures, dress, architecture, and language.

Language, in fact, typifies the Chinese case. People from one area of China would find it difficult – often impossible – to understand someone from another part of the country. Yet all the languages were recognisably 'Chinese', they all stemmed from one root language, and had many general features in common which distinguished them as a group from other languages of the world.

All the Chinese languages have *tones,* ie any one sound can be produced with varying pitch or intonation (rising, falling or level) to give quite different meanings. The sound *si* in Cantonese can mean either a corpse, history, to try, time, a market, or a soya bean, depending on which of six tones is used to say it. Where English uses intonation over a whole sentence to convey shades of meaning, Chinese cannot, because the tone of each word is fixed. Chinese people speaking English find it difficult to use sentence intonation, and often sound 'sing-song' as a result.

The number of distinct sounds used in Chinese is comparatively small. Complex clusters of consonants are unknown, and final consonants are limited to -n, -ng, -m, -p, -t, -k, of which the last four have disappeared from some of the languages.

Syllables are all meaningful, so that while there are plenty of polysyllabic words like the English words *coalman* and *bedrock,* there are no words of more than one syllable like *trousers* and *table* where the individual syllables are meaningless on their own. It is for this reason that Chinese languages have been labelled 'monosyllabic'.

Chinese languages have also been said to have no grammar. This is of course not true, but they do lack a lot of the grammatical devices which are associated with other languages. Nouns, verbs and adjectives do not have more than one form, so that there is no declension or conjugation. Nouns do not have gender, or number, or case, and verbs do not have mood or tense. It follows that adjectives and verbs do not have to 'agree' with nouns, because there is no feature for them to agree with. Many words have more than one function, doing duty, for example, as either nouns or verbs.

Word order, on the other hand, is rather more important than in many other languages, because observance of strict order is the only way in which the connections between words and ideas can be communicated to the listener. The most common order – subject-verb-object – is familiar to English speakers, but other patterns can combine with or transform this. Word orders and the use of a limited number of auxiliary particles achieve the same effects as intonation patterns in English.

The Chinese language and the rest of Chinese culture was a pedigree growth. It gave to other less resistant cultures, but it took little from them because it came into contact with so little which it felt to be worthy of assimilation. Before the twentieth century, Buddhism, imported from India in the first century AD, was the one great exception to this cultural self-sufficiency, and even there a distinctly Chinese stamp was soon set on the religion. It was accommodated to the needs and dictates of ancestor worship, and the concept of Nirvana was merged with the idea of a 'Western Heaven', for instance.

Chinese people are immensely conscious of the proud and long history of civilisation to which they are the heirs. In the past they were convinced that their culture was superior to that of the rest of the world. This conviction was to some extent shaken by contact with the West, but they still look with cool appraisal at exotic institutions which conflict with cultural values proved through the ages.

Hong Kong and the New Territories

The small island of Hong Kong on the southern coast of China was ceded to Britain in perpetuity by the 1842 Treaty of Nanking. In 1860 Kowloon, the tip of the mainland peninsula opposite Hong Kong, was also ceded. Finally in 1898 a 99-year lease on the rest of the peninsula was obtained, these 'New Territories' constituting over seven-eighths of the area of the colony.

It is a mountainous region, with only about 12 per cent of the total land area being cultivable. That 12 per cent is fertile and the subtropical climate allows two crops of high quality rice a year.

Hong Kong was inhabited by two main groups of people. The more numerous and powerful were the Cantonese speakers, usually known by the term *Punti*, an anglicised form of a word meaning 'indigenous people'. The other group were the *Hakka*, 'guest people'. Both Cantonese and Hakka are Chinese, though the two languages are mutually unintelligible, and there are certain other cultural distinctions in dress and custom. The Punti occupied mostly the western, more fertile half of the New Territories, while the Hakka predominated in the eastern, hillier areas. Hong Kong island and some coastal areas had small populations of fishermen and boat-dwellers, most of whom also spoke Cantonese.

Before the arrival of the British, Hong Kong formed part of the county of San-on. The county seat was some miles away, and the only Chinese government official in the area was a Deputy Magistrate stationed in Kowloon City. As in other remote parts of China, direct contact with Government was slight, and the inhabitants were almost entirely self-governing.

The main mechanism of this local government was the *lineage* (often called the *clan*). The typical clan village was the exclusive property of one family which had expanded in numbers over many generations. The oldest villages have a continuous history of settlement of 1000 years and more, and by the twentieth century their populations were in some cases as large as three or four thousand.

Because it was the custom for daughters to be married out to other villages but for sons to remain in the same village and bring their brides in to live with them, all the members of the village would have the same surname. The same principles on which the family was run – the superiority of age over youth and of male over female – were applied to the clan village, and the men who were senior in generation and age (the elders) formed an unelected, self-evident village government. They mediated disputes, managed communal funds and property, rewarded and punished.

The village and the family were almost the same thing in this system, and the power of this 'cell' over the individual was enormous.

Inter-village relationships were handled on a power-politics basis. The wealthier, larger clans dominated the smaller, and were embroiled in permanent feuding among themselves. Many of the villages were walled and moated, stocks of arms were kept at readiness, and from time to time bloody battles were fought.

The large clans were better able to support scholarship than the poorer smaller villages, and they nearly always had a number of well-educated men amongst them who shared the leadership of the clan with the elders, and who were able to use their prestige and more catholic interests to operate (for their own and their clansmen's benefit) in the wider society.

For the average villager (there were no large towns) life was a heavy summer's activity in the rice-fields, and a winter of comparative ease. The ritual year consisted of a number of festivals timed to avoid the busy agricultural periods.

On the lunar calendar came the major holiday, New Year, but also the Dragon Boat Festival on the fifth of the fifth month, the Weaving Maiden Festival on the seventh of the seventh month, and Chung Yeung on the ninth of the ninth, when the clans visited their important graves. The birthday of the much-worshipped goddess Tin Hau, Empress of Heaven, was observed on the twenty-third of the third lunar month. By the solar calendar were fixed the Winter Solstice and Ching Ming, when most families worshipped at the graves of recent ancestors.

The Almanac, printed annually, determined for most people the lucky and unlucky times and dates for carrying on special secular or ritual activities.

Religion was a mixture of ancestor worship, Buddhism, Taoism, and animism, most housewives making some routine offerings to household gods and ancestors every day, while on the first and fifteenth of the lunar month and on other days declared by the Almanac to be auspicious the whole range of gods and spirits throughout the village would be worshipped. Men were involved in worship on the more important occasions, such as New Year, and at the major clan and village ceremonies.

The ceded lands of Hong Kong and Kowloon were heavily involved with international trading activities from the start, and they were soon thoroughly urbanised. The New Territories remained relatively untouched by what was going on in the cities but, after 1945 when the Pacific War ended, world events impinged on them, and far-reaching changes occurred.

Cheap rice from mainland Southeast Asia played havoc with the local rice economy. At the same time vast numbers of refugees from civil war in China poured into the Colony, creating an enormous demand for market garden produce. The New Territories people had the idle land but neither the skills nor the inclination to grow vegetables. They began instead to rent out their fields to refugees.

Initially, the wealthiest clan villages benefited from the changes. They were situated on the best land and they had the easiest and fastest communications with the cities, so that the vegetables could arrive in fresh condition at the markets. The rental income from their fields tended to push up standards of living. By contrast, the more remote, poorer villages were faced with a declining rice market and no compensating income from vegetables.

The opportunity to migrate to Britain and western Europe to engage in the swelling restaurant trade came just at this time. Not surprisingly it was these poorest villages which responded to the chance first, the wealthier ones feeling the need only later. By the mid-1970s there were very few villages of any type which had not sent men abroad.

Money from the overseas workers began to flow back to the New Territories. The visible result was a mushrooming of new two-storey 'Sterling houses', some of them standing empty. From the mid-1950s on, remittances gave some twenty years of comparative prosperity to the New Territories, but the decline in value of the pound combined with other trends to reduce the silver stream. More recently whole villages have become deserted as the men in Europe have sent for their wives and families to join them.

Meanwhile the urban areas of Hong Kong and Kowloon have become highly prosperous and sophisticated through intense industrial effort and through trading and tourism. At the same time population pressure has produced a movement out to the New Territories. Where before there were only villages and a few rudimentary market towns, now a number of entirely new conurbations exist; and two of these are each expected to house a million people by the 1980s. Improved roads, piped water, electricity, telephones, radio and television, as well as new industrial estates and the convenience of urban amenities, have all combined to transform the life and countryside which the migrants had known – 'going home' for many of them no longer has deep meaning.

The Chinese in Britain

China began with a 'good press' in Britain. From Marco Polo's awestruck account, through many years of peripheral contact, the impression on British minds was of an immensely civilised, cultured, peaceful nation.

The impression lasted until the late eighteenth century, when Britain tried to force her attentions upon China, first through trade and diplomacy, and then, when they failed, through arms, trade, opium, and missionaries. China, in a period of decline as the vigour of the Manchu dynasty began to wane, was no match for British arms, and she suffered repeated humiliation through the nineteenth century. The British contrived to develop a lordly contempt for the culture whose erstwhile greatness they had admired, and which they had actively helped to weaken.

It was during this period that Chinese were first to be seen in Britain. Almost all of them were seamen, men who had been taken on by ships of the East India Company, and later of the private companies which traded with the China coast. There are reports of Chinese in London at least as early as 1814, and their numbers grew through most of the nineteenth century.

As if to reinforce the changed attitude to China, these men could not have been seen by even the most starry-eyed Sinophile as the silk-clad, book-steeped exquisites who used to people the imagined China of yore. They were illiterate, tatty, bedraggled specimens, forced by poverty and over-population off the land which they craved – different, perhaps very little, from the majority of the British seamen who were creating a bad image for themselves in China's ports.

The gelling together of a number of Chinese to form seamen's 'Chinatowns' in London and Liverpool happened around the end of the nineteenth century, but their size was never large, and the kind of unsavoury reputation attaching to them (which fostered the Fu Man Chu legend) probably reflected the lawlessness of the Chinese of the Californian gold rush rather than a true picture of conditions in Britain. By 1901 there were still a mere 545 Chinese living in the whole country.

Numbers rose after that, and fluctuated between one and two thousand until the 1950s. Then, a measure of gastronomic adventurousness flushed the head of the British public, and Chinese restaurants suddenly came into vogue. Some of the surplus labour of Hong Kong was soon sucked as if by syphon into the restaurant business 7000 miles from home. For reasons connected with eligibility to obtain passports, nearly all the labour came from the New Territories. Coming from the poorer areas, Hakka men gained an early ascendancy in the business, but the Punti villages were not far behind, and the usual language of communication among the Chinese community in Britain now is Cantonese, just as it is in Hong Kong.

Again, much was owed to the Californian gold rush, because the stateless, mongrel cuisine known as *chop suey* originated there, and it has been chop suey which has filled the Chinese restaurants of Britain with bean sprouts and customers. There are two major advantages to chop suey. First, it needs no hard-to-find ingredients; and, second, it needs little expertise to cook. Entirely untrained men from the villages of the New Territories could become chop suey chefs literally overnight.

The number of Chinese restaurants in Britain multiplied by about fifteen in the twenty years after 1950, and it has gone on growing, though much more slowly, since. By 1979 it was estimated that 80,000 Hong Kong Chinese were living in the United Kingdom, the great majority of them working in catering. (And working in the restaurants and hotels of continental Western Europe were many more.)

This massive influx was brought about with a minimum of conflict or ill-feeling. Until the early seventies most of the migrants were men, those who were married leaving their wives and families at home. They worked very long hours, often for seven days a week, so that they did not appear much on the streets or in public places. And they were scattered all through the cities and towns of Britain, so that there were no high concentrations of numbers to excite racist fears. Moreover, they were meeting a popular demand for inexpensive, exotic food. The

Chinese image was reburnished, and if it did not shine as brightly as in the post-Marco Polo days, at least it had lost the nineteenth century tarnish.

So little contact did these restaurant workers have with the public they served that it has been suggested that fewer than 10 per cent of them learned any English at all, and many might work in Britain for several years without ever actually speaking to a native.

Clearly, to live for long years in such conditions would place impossible strain on the men. A way of providing entertainment and relief was bound to evolve. The East London docks area which had housed the earliest Chinese settlers was small, relied almost exclusively on seafaring men, and had been decimated first by the Blitz and then by post-war slum clearance projects. The decline of the London docks was the final nail in the coffin. But a new Chinatown evolved.

The restaurant trade was not tied to the docks area, nor to any area in particular, but a kind of natural focus for it was the West End of London with its theatres and night clubs. In the mid-1960s Gerrard Street, a small street parallel with Shaftesbury Avenue and right in the heart of the Soho entertainment district, suddenly burst into a colourful blossom of Chinese restaurant signs. The location was right and the property was available at ridiculously low rents on short leases prior to demolition.

The new restaurants were different. They were there primarily to cater for the Chinese, not for the British; and they served genuine Chinese food, importing expensive trained chefs from the restaurants of Hong Kong and Kowloon. In no time they became highly profitable, more sprang up beside them, and other businesses catering for the restaurant workers were drawn in. Printers, gambling dens, Chinese cinemas, Chinese hairdressers, Chinese taxi companies, Chinese banks, Chinese travel agencies, Chinese accountants, and Chinese bookshops mushroomed.

Shortly afterwards the area was redeemed by a preservation order, and Chinatown had not only arrived but had come to stay. There is no doubt but that Gerrard Street is now the centre of Britain's Chinese life. Other lesser centres are to be found in Liverpool, Manchester, Southampton, Bristol, Cardiff, Glasgow and Edinburgh.

As far as the host society was concerned the new Chinatown was a positive advantage – the discriminating palate could now savour real Chinese cuisine, and real Chinese goods could be found for sale. And again it was achieved without friction. The Chinese minded their own business, got in nobody's way, and competed in no field which was coveted by the British.

The migrants have developed little in the way of community organisation. Each restauranteur has tended to recruit his work-force by personal recommendation, in many cases preferring to employ men who come from his own native village, or who are perhaps related to him by kinship or marriage. The wide scatter of restaurant sites through the land has also made organisation difficult. A few trade associations and some clubs (some with political leanings) have been formed over the years, but all have had stop-go fortunes. Gerrard Street has functioned more as an amusement park, an ethnic playground, a market place, than as a forum or focus for joint action.

Most constant and active as a source of aid and protection has been the Hong Kong Government Office in London. Staffed by European and Chinese officers appointed from Hong Kong, the Office gives advice, information, and such help as it can with the never-ending visa and passport problems of Hong Kong people in Britain. There is a well stocked library of works in English and Chinese on Hong Kong, a frequent (and free) Chinese language news-sheet carrying items of interest about Hong Kong and Britain, and a liaison staff whose knowledge of Chinese circumstances and difficulties is encyclopaedic and sought after at all hours. Branch offices have been opened in Manchester and Edinburgh to extend the service. Of course, there are many migrants who do not necessarily wish to avail themselves of such 'establishment' help.

In fact, other than the Hong Kong Government Office, there is really no-one to speak for the Chinese community, though there are ways of tapping parts of it for advice or an opinion.

From the end of the 1960s another new factor entered the situation – family life. The riots and uncertainties of a Hong Kong with the Great Proletarian Cultural Revolution on its doorstep encouraged the migrants to think in terms of permanent stay in Britain, and of bringing their wives in to join them. This gave added impetus to a comparatively recent change in emphasis away from the complex family structures which were tied to the land, towards the simple family of father, mother, and unmarried children.

Since that time Chinese women and children have become a familiar sight in the streets, supermarkets and schools of Britain, and their menfolk have necessarily been to some extent drawn out into the wider community too. Of course this expansion has not been achieved without difficulties.

While numbers were low, and impact on the British way of life minimal, the Chinese went almost unnoticed by researchers and government agencies. Maurice Broady produced a couple of short articles on them in the late 1950s, and then the Institute of Race Relations published Ng Kwee Choo's *The Chinese in London* in 1968. The book was interesting enough, but it did not point to any deep-seated problems, and came to the conclusion that:

> *the Chinese in Britain do not constitute a 'minority problem' to members of the host society, mainly because their number is too small for significance, and they do not compete for jobs with the natives.*

A comfortable (and, as far as it goes, doubtless accurate) picture.

In 1975 came two further reports. James L Watson's *Emigration and the Chinese Lineage* (Blackwells) is a book which is basically concerned with the effects on a New Territories village of the wholesale exodus of its inhabitants to work in the restaurants of Europe. But he also looks at the London end of the migration chain, not from the point of view of the host society, but from that of the migrants themselves. Here the picture is not quite as comfortable as that drawn by Ng, partly because by 1975 the trend to family emigration had set in, and partly because of the illuminating anthropological standpoint from which the researcher worked. Watson says of these villagers:

> *The Mans always emphasise that the emigrant life is difficult and trying, and they do not feel secure enough to pull up stakes in their home community. It is too*

> *early to determine how many of the Mans will actually decide to settle in Britain because the trend toward family emigration is a recent development. When asked, most uphold the traditional ideal by stating that they intend to retire in San Tin. It is my impression . . . . that few of the Mans have made a conscious decision to become permanent residents of Britain, but this may change if the political equilibrium of Hong Kong is altered significantly.*

The ambivalence in the migrants' long-term planning shown here was typical of that time, and it remains today.

The second report which came out in 1975 was not merely 'not comfortable', it was disturbing. *Chinese Children* by Anne Garvey and Brian Jackson was published by the National Educational Research and Development Trust. It points out that the comfortable picture of a work-happy, contented Chinese community is not a complete picture. Chinese children in British schools, it claims, are invisible, because they do not create discipline problems; are ignored, because they do not ask questions in class; are not educated, because teachers misconstrue their silence to mean understanding, when in fact it means the opposite as the children have no command of English; are bullied in the playgrounds; and are exhausted, because they have to work long hours in their parents' restaurants at night. The report is over-emotive and factually inaccurate, but it has served a purpose in warning against complacency.

Since then a number of conferences on Chinese problems, sponsored by Community Relations Councils, the Department of Education and Science and others, have been held. A lot of the effort has been directed to one end – to integrate the Chinese into British society. It is here that the ambivalence of attitude of Chinese residents is brought out most clearly. The majority of them do not seem to share the view that this end is desirable. Missing the settled security of the ancestral home and the traditional religious and economic life (none of which can be transported to Europe), the parents worry how they should prevent their sons and daughters from losing their Chinese identity. At one conference held in Edinburgh, the only one where more Chinese than British were present, the cry was unanimous – "Help us find facilities for teaching Chinese to our children."

Throughout the country, students from Hong Kong attending courses of higher education are being pressed into service as transmitters of Chinese culture to the Chinese young: eager parents sign up their children's names for classes as soon as announced. In 1977 a Chinese school was set up in Soho by the London Chinese Chamber of Commerce, and several hundred students attend it in the evenings and at weekends, going to ordinary British schools during the day. Some parents send their children back to Hong Kong for their education, or for part of it.

At present the Chinese in Britain divide into two main groups – the restaurant owners and workers from the New Territories, and the large body of students from Hong Kong and Southeast Asia. The latter are short-stayers only, and constitute no particular problem. A small but growing group of Chinese in the professions are similarly without major problems. But those who have come to work in the restaurant trade are in a kind of trap. So far they mainly earn reasonable money, and have no difficulties in operating in British society. But a second generation is fast growing, and is unlikely to be so content to work long hours in a backwater trade. On the one hand many of them will want to diversify and identify more with a British way of life; on the other there is clearly a danger that the education system (by default) and their parents (by gut-reaction) will hinder their freedom of choice. At the moment the Hong Kong Government Office can act as a kind of unofficial consulate for them, protecting their interests; but a second and third generation born in Britain and with full British citizenship can hardly expect such help.

The Chinese community in Britain enjoys much good will, and in terms of integration that is more than a head start. But the pragmatic desire to get on in Britain runs foul of the sentimental attachment of all Chinese to their magnetic and powerful cultural roots. They feel the need to achieve a compromise between these two: and the host society for its part must be helpful in making the compromise possible. There is no reason why enlightened programmes should not assist the transitional generations to be brought up bilingually and biculturally if that is their preference; there is not necessarily any conflict ahead.

Background to the Vietnamese Refugees

by P J Honey

Like the Chinese, the Vietnamese are the products of a very old civilisation and, because Vietnam was incorporated into the Chinese Empire and governed by China for roughly a thousand years, the national cultures of the two peoples have a great deal in common. The two elements in the country's name , 'Viet' and 'Nam', are themselves Chinese characters, but in Roman script they reflect the Vietnamese rather than the Chinese pronunciation. The first – in Chinese 'Yueh' – was used to refer to the non-Chinese peoples beyond the borders of Southern China and may be translated 'barbarian' in the same sense that the Classical Greeks referred to the non-Greek peoples as 'barbaroi'. The second word – in Chinese 'Nam' – simply means 'south or southern', so that the name Vietnam means 'barbarians of the south'.

At the time of the Chinese conquest, in the second century BC, the Vietnamese were still a nomadic people living by hunting wild animals, without any writing, technology, or organised national government. Under Chinese tutelage they were transformed into a nation of settled lowland rice farmers living under a regular system of government and enjoying access to Chinese education and literature. The new administration permitted the organisation of sufficient labour to clear the forests and construct the ricefields with their irrigation systems, all of which changed the physical appearance of Vietnam. Rice culture imposes its own social pattern, for the maintenance of ricefields and growing of crops demand the continuing labour of many hands throughout the whole cycle of the year. Farmers had to live close to the fields they tended, which led to the creation of myriads of small villages dotted among their surrounding ricefields and endowed Vietnam, like China, with its own characteristic pattern of countryside.

Vietnamese attending schools acquired access to Chinese literature, philosophy, technology, and much else besides, and subsequently their knowledge was transmitted to the whole Vietnamese people. The predominant philosophy was Confucianism, on which were based the system of government, social relationships and attitudes, moral values, and the rest. Taoism, too, won Vietnamese adherents as did Buddhism, and all was superimposed on indigenous animistic beliefs to form an amalgam that would, in due course, become a national religion. When the Chinese were driven out in the tenth century and Vietnam became independent, the Vietnamese modelled their form of government upon that of China, a scarcely surprising development since they knew of no other and, in any case, the whole style of Vietnamese life which had evolved during the long period of Chinese rule very closely resembled that of China.

Yet the Vietnamese language, spoken as it was by the whole mass of the ordinary uneducated people, survived the millenium of Chinese rule intact. Similar to Chinese in that it is monosyllabic and tonal, the Vietnamese language is nevertheless quite different in structure. There was no written literature in Vietnamese during Chinese rule, although oral literature was popular among those unschooled in Chinese, and all of it was in verse form presumably for greater ease of memorising. Over the centuries the Vietnamese borrowed, and introduced into their language, Chinese words, sometimes whole expressions and even phrases, generally to express abstract concepts which were beyond the scope of their own language. The process continued even after the departure of the Chinese rulers, so that the relationship of Chinese to Vietnamese became analogous to that of Latin and Greek to English. When a word was required to express some new invention or concept, Vietnamese looked to Chinese and made use of the most appropriate characters. Expressions having more than one character, borrowed from Chinese, continued to preserve in Vietnamese the original Chinese word order, which is different from that of Vietnamese, and this led to complications. Scarcely less confusing were the borrowings of Chinese expressions in cases where adequate Vietnamese ones already existed, for this resulted in the presence of two expressions in Vietnamese of identical meaning, each conforming to its own different word order pattern. An example of what is meant may be found in the words for *aeroplane*.[1]

With the departure from Vietnam of the Chinese rulers, the Vietnamese began to develop characters with which to write their own language, although Chinese continued to be used for all official documents and for the more highly esteemed literary works. In the case of Chinese-borrowed words or expressions there was no difficulty at all because the existing Chinese characters were used. For native Vietnamese words the Vietnamese manufactured their own characters, seeking the Chinese character best suited to the meaning and the phonetic best suited to the pronunciation and adding strokes to distinguish the new character from all others. Thereafter the Chinese characters were known in Vietnamese as 'Chu Nho' and the manufactured characters used to write Vietnamese words 'Chu Nom', or 'Southern Characters'. Some confusion has long persisted over these latter characters since individual scholars tended to make up their own characters and no dictionary existed to ensure uniformity. The outcome of all this was the development of two distinct literatures in Vietnam; Chu Nho literature indistinguishable from that of China, and Chu Nom literature illegible to the Chinese.

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[1] Vietnamese native
May-bay
(machine-fly)
Chinese borrowed
Phi-co
(fly-machine)

The Vietnamese have always been more homogeneous than the Chinese because they are very much smaller in numbers, there are far fewer local dialects, and their country is less vast and lacks the great climatic differences to be found in China. They adopted from the Chinese not only the Confucian concepts of the family, society, the state, government, but much else in every sphere of human activity, so that the traveller might have been excused for confusing Vietnam and China because of the similarity of the architecture, the layout of the countryside and cities, the patterns of social behaviour, dress, customs, and so on. Indeed, since the borrowers of an alien culture are seldom completely certain about which elements are essential and which unimportant, they tend to change nothing, with the result that Vietnam continued to resemble China of an earlier period long after China herself had evolved and introduced change. It was said earlier this century that if one wished to observe the procedures of the Chinese imperial court of many centuries ago, one could do so by visiting the Vietnamese imperial court at Hue.

Western influence made itself felt in Vietnam for the first time in the late sixteenth and the seventeenth centuries, with Christian missionaries and traders arriving simultaneously. The poverty of the Vietnamese, together with the unsuitability of many of the trade goods, inhibited the rapid development of commerce, but Christianity made more headway. The Vietnamese had already embraced animism, Taoism, Confucianism, and Buddhism with some enthusiasm and were not averse to adding Christianity to this number, but in Christianity they encountered for the first time an exclusive religion. They learned from the missionaries that they might not practise the other religions once they had become converted to Christianity and that they might have only one wife. Also they were not to participate in local or national rites or ceremonies, of which many were enacted as expressions of loyalty to the throne. The obedience of Vietnamese Christians to these behests, originating from some foreign power outside Vietnam, gave rise to suspicion of disloyalty and aroused resentment, so that persecution followed and the spread of Christianity was restricted. The missionaries, who evinced a far greater interest than the traders in the local society, beliefs, and culture, perfected a method of writing the Vietnamese language in Roman letters supplemented by a number of diacritical marks, and the first dictionary in this new script was published by the Vatican in 1651. This new script known as 'Quoc Ngu' was simple to learn and avoided the ambiguities of Chu Nom, but nothing more than a catechism and one or two prayer books were published in it so that, outside a few Vietnamese Christians, nobody learned it and the script was soon forgotten.

French domination over Vietnam commenced in the second half of the nineteenth century, and it was not long before the French authorities, perceiving the advantages of Quoc Ngu, began publishing official documents and papers in it, and introducing it in place of the characters into the curriculum of the new Franco-Annamite schools they established. In a surprisingly short space of time Quoc Ngu script squeezed out the characters altogether and became the normal means of writing the Vietnamese language. This, in its turn, brought great benefits to Vietnam, for Quoc Ngu could be learned in a few hours and enabled illiteracy to be virtually eliminated within a generation. The development of a Vietnamese press was possible because the Quoc Ngu script could be printed by Western machines with only very slight adjustments, and thus the cost of book production was reduced until most Vietnamese could afford to purchase and read their own books. The spread of education resulting from the adoption of Quoc Ngu made it possible for the French to introduce Western technology to the Vietnamese and for students to travel to France to receive their higher education. There followed an awareness of the outside world, a burgeoning interest in new academic disciplines, technologies, and non-Vietnamese literatures. Vietnam herself gave birth to a new literature in the Vietnamese language, a prose literature derived from Western short stories and novels which won immediate acclaim and popularity.

Foreign influences made themselves felt in Vietnam during the twentieth century in unprecedented numbers, for Japan dominated the country during World War II, to be replaced in 1945 by Nationalist Chinese in the north and British in the south, and both of these were duly replaced by the return of the French. Communism became an important influence in 1945 and imposed itself upon the national liberation movement which was seeking to drive out the French and reestablish national independence. Following the Geneva conference of 1954 the French withdrew and Vietnam was divided temporarily into two, the northern half ruled by the communist Viet Minh and the southern half by the nationalists. Both regimes were heavily influenced by foreign political creeds, Soviet and Chinese communism in the north and American laissez-faire materialism in the south. A protracted war ended only in 1975, with the communist regime imposing its rule upon the whole country.

The effect of so many changes was increased still further by the artificial division of the country and the enforced separation of the people in the north from those in the south. A different style of written language developed in each region, with the north affecting a turgid cliche-ridden style heavily influenced by that of Marxist/Leninist writings and the south a less formal easy-going style more akin to that of modern American literature. The outlook of the people in the two regions diverged too, affected by conditions of life during the lengthy war. The penury and strict regimentation of northern Vietnam contrasted starkly with the affluence, materialism, and individualism of the south, and the effect of both are to be seen in the very different attitudes of Vietnamese from each of the two regions. Large numbers of southern Vietnamese have studied in the West and are familiar with conditions in the world at large, but those from the northern region who journeyed outside Vietnam have experienced only conditions obtaining in communist countries, China, the Soviet Union, or Eastern Europe. While it would be incorrect to state that such differences are superficial and therefore unimportant, they are unlikely to have affected the deep-rooted heritage of so many centuries of common experience and common culture. Despite the readily observable differences between people coming from the north and those from the south of the country, all Vietnamese have far more in common with one another, and that of a more fundamental and permanent character. Longer acquaintance with Vietnamese people will leave no doubt that this is the case.

Chapter 2

Teaching English as a Second Language, with Suggestions for Chinese Children

Marcel Leclerc

For the first time teachers are being faced with the task of planning programmes and selecting materials for groups of Chinese children. Teachers in this situation who are using this Guide as a source of inspiration might find it best to read it all through first to get a general view of the problems and possibilities and then to begin with programmes selected from the list in this chapter entitled 'Initial Programmes for Chinese Pupils at Different Levels'.

As teacher and pupils' skills develop, further strategies and programmes can be developed from suggestions in the other parts of this chapter, and additional teaching materials can be selected from the classified lists.

Educationalists who already have experience of working with ethnic minority groups should find this chapter useful as a source of additional teaching suggestions and of references to new materials.

All teachers involved with ethnic minority groups should, of course, constantly keep in mind the linguistic and other difficulties that each of their groups may be experiencing. Chapter 3 of this guide indicates some of the difficulties likely to be enountered by Chinese pupils and gives specific suggestions for remedial and practice work.

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Part 4 Useful teaching materials for E2L Work with Chinese Groups
Schools Council Project Materials
General Materials for Initial Work with E2L Groups

Part 1 Historical Background to 'English for Immigrants'

The increase in numbers of pupils unable to make satisfactory progress in UK schools led, in 1963, to the setting up of a preliminary enquiry to examine the position. The enquiry showed that by 1965 there were over 44,000 children in need of assistance including groups from India, Pakistan, Cyprus, Italy, the West Indies and Hong-Kong.

A Schools Council Project was quickly established with a brief to ..... 'provide teaching materials and to help teachers enable pupils whose first language is not English to achieve an adequate command of English, so that they can play as full a part as possible in society'.

Project materials and information handbooks in a number of useful areas were published, the principal materials being *SCOPE 1 An Introductory English Course for Immigrant Children, SCOPE 2, Senior SCOPE* and a number of handbooks.

Substantial numbers of children, either newly arrived from Commonwealth or other countries, or born in the UK of immigrant parents, are now working their way through our educational system. Most of them need some sort of help with the understanding of English and skill in its use.

The selection of basic 'direct-method' teaching programmes and items suitable for the various situations in which ethnic-minority pupils are encountered has been made easier by the recent publication of the revised and updated Schools Council *SCOPE 1* materials. There are now more materials available, both published, and locally produced, which can support *SCOPE 1* and extend its use to a wider range of ages and abilities among ethnic-minority pupils, including the Chinese.

Direct-Method Teaching

The initial teaching of English to ethnic-minority groups in UK schools is usually centred upon the 'direct-method' approach, and most courses and materials are planned with this in mind. It is of course useful for teachers to learn at least a little of their various pupil groups' first languages. This leads to a greater understanding of 'first language interference' and cultural differences, and encourages closer rapport with the pupils.

Mother Tongue Teaching

There has been renewed discussion recently about 'Mother Tongue' teaching. Impetus has been given to it by some EEC countries that have migrant workers wishing (or required) to return to their country of origin. It is obvious that a child's first language and cultural background should not be neglected in such circumstances. Indeed certain psychologists and educationalists feel that teachers can add to a migrant child's problems by teaching the language of the host country exclusively before a child has really mastered his home language and its associated concepts. Further research on this question has been set up and in one or two areas of the UK a selection of experimental classes and schools are teaching in some of the more widely used eastern languages.

It is difficult to imagine however that general facilities will be made available for schools to teach minority groups (especially Chinese) in their own languages. What is more likely is that further support will be given to groups to help with their own special classes and Saturday schools, and to schools so that a wider range of languages can be taught to examination standards.

The Entry of Ethnic-Minority Pupils into the UK Schooling System: Materials and Tactics

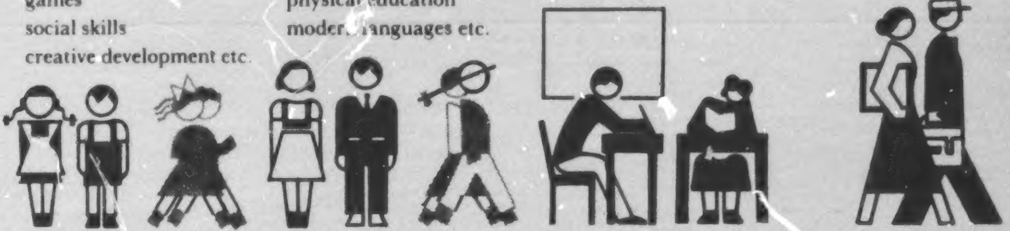
This summary chart shows the appropriate areas of usage of the various Schools Council *SCOPE* materials produced to help with the teaching of English as a second language. The chart also indicates important areas of work associated with the cultural and ethnic backgrounds of the pupils and the acquisition of the skills they need in order to make progress with their schooling.

5 Infant (first)
language skills –
development of concepts
games
social skills
creative development etc.

Junior (middle)
language development
subject starters
general topics
physical education
modern languages etc.

Senior (upper)
course examination syllabuses
additional subjects
sports etc.

Further Education▸



4 Structured programmed materials *CONCEPT 7–9* *SCOPE 2* Course Items Senior *SCOPE*

(I)
3 *SCOPE 3* Handbook 3
with selected materials
– teachers productions
– local adaption of scheme.

(M)
SCOPE 1 or adaption
plus recommended extra items –
adapted commercial materials –
locally produced items – teachers
own productions.

(S)
Seniors and Adults
selected *SCOPE 1* items – a
programme based on
a language experience approach
adapted EL2 materials – selected
commercial items – teachers
productions.

UK

1

2 Items linked with cultural-ethnic backgrounds

The Entry of Ethnic Minority Pupils into the UK Schooling System: Initial Materials and Tactics

Explanation of the marked areas
(Each of these is dealt with in more detail in the chapter which follows.)

1 Countries of Origin

Pupil groups now include fair numbers of pupils arriving from Vietnamese areas, many of whose problems may be similar to pupils from

Hong Kong. Substantial numbers of pupils who have arrived in certain areas of the UK from countries such as Pakistan, India, Bangladesh, etc. have encouraged particular local authorities to set up special centres, language classes, etc. to deal with their problems.

Pupils born in the UK to ethnic-minority parents may be in need of as much help as those arriving from overseas.

2 Cultural and Ethnic Backgrounds

Teachers' initial needs include items linked to the cultural and ethnic backgrounds of each of their pupil groups. These include information booklets produced by various national bodies such as the DES, the Schools Council, CRE, Embassies, etc.

Teachers need access to items such as filmstrips, slides, 'cultural background' packs etc. from these and commercial sources.

3 Principal Materials and Strategies

SCOPE materials are indicated in their appropriate areas of usefulness

Infant *SCOPE Handbook 3* provides initial suggestions for work at this level. Outline programmes for Chinese children will be found on page 44.

Mainstream *SCOPE 1* materials can be useful across a wide age level (6+ to early senior). *Mainstream* is a useful term to indicate pupils of these age ranges at fairly early stages of language acquisition.

Senior Senior and adult beginners will find some of the *SCOPE* productions useful for initial work but need to proceed rapidly into selected and adapted items from wider sources. Where time and organisation permit, 'language-experience' approaches, based upon pupils' interests, are often the most fruitful. Suggestions for senior programmes will be found on page 48.

4 Materials for Further Practice and Development

A wide range of structured and programmed materials is needed to consolidate skills already acquired and extend them sufficiently to enable ethnic-minority groups join their indigenous peers in the subjects and syllabuses of the classes they have entered.

5 Types of Schools and Important Areas of Their Curricula

The general curricula of schools should reflect the needs and aspirations of *all* the ethnic-minority groups as well as of their native pupils. Multicultural schools should make *positive efforts* to make appropriate use of the special qualities and gifts and interests that their minority groups may be able to contribute.

Many ethnic-minority pupils will need assistance in the early work and activities in subjects and in many skills developing in the schools they have entered. Most local authorities who have substantial numbers of minority pupils will have endeavoured to appoint extra teachers trained in E2L work to assist in this process.

Part 2 General Approach to Teaching Ethnic–Minority Groups

Introduction Local Authority: Organisation and Support Services

Most local authorities who have received substantial numbers of 'immigrant' pupils have set up appropriate organisational and support services to help deal with the associated problems. These include advisory help, training and resource-centre facilities and possibly additional staff, materials and equipment for schools. Finance may come from local funds or national sources ('Section II', 'Urban Aid', etc.).

Educationalists involved with ethnic-minority work in areas without such facilities and expertise may find it useful to contact departments such as Multicultural Education, Special Services, Remedial Services etc. in areas with large numbers of immigrant pupils, so that visits to their Resource and Language Centres can be arranged and problems can be discussed at first hand. Some Authorities now produce information booklets and teaching materials which are available at a nominal charge. Other areas can offer experienced speakers to contribute specialist sessions at courses.

Support services of help to schools involved with E2L work include Teachers' Centres, Libraries and School Museums. These may be able to provide:

- books, booklets and information sheets relevant to specific ethnic and cultural backgrounds
- books and information about: teaching English as a second language; teaching English as a foreign language; language teaching generally; linguistics; the teaching of basic skills; remedial work, etc.
- loan packs; film strips/slides; 'objets d'art', pictures and models linked to various cultural interests for topic development or relating to the local environment
- story books and picture books of interest to particular pupil groups
- reprographic services to print locally-prepared material and items obtained from Resource Centres in other parts of the UK.

Teacher Training and Information

There are now, in various parts of the UK, extended courses which offer training in the teaching of English as a second language. Some of these are based at Colleges of Education, and some give a certificate at the end of the course, eg Licentiate Diploma for Teaching English as a Second Language (Trinity College, London). Not many teachers, however, can take extended courses, especially if these are not within their local authority area. Teachers dealing with small groups of ethnic-minority pupils do need, at the least, the benefit of short, intensive courses, that are biased towards the practical side of E2L teaching. Courses of this nature are occasionally sponsored by the DES in various parts of the country, and are usually held in co-operation with the LEA.

An annual seven-day course is held at Loughborough University as part of the Summer School, entitled 'Strategies and Materials for

Multicultural Situations'. This covers all aspects of E2L work in most types of situations.

Sources of general information include:

DES	
Working Paper 13	*English for the Children of Immigrants*
Working Paper 14	*The Continuing Need of Immigrants*
Schools Council	
Working Paper 31	*Immigrant Children in the Infant School* (Evans)
Bulletin 5	*Teachers for Disadvantaged Children*
NCCI	*Practical Suggestions for the Teaching of Immigrants*
CRE	*Health and Welfare of the Immigrant Child* *A Second Chance* *Further Education in Multiracial Britain*
Centre for Teaching of Reading University of Reading 29 Eastern Avenue Reading	Tape/slide sequence *Aspects of Teaching Immigrants to Read* by June Derrick; *Reading Provision for Immigrant Pupils* by M Fitzgerald
Immigrant Education Resource Centre T F Davies Teachers' Centre, Bradford	*Using a Reading Scheme/Activities and Games for Phonics/Maths Topics for Language Work*, strageties, activities and games for language work, many papers and practice items
Language & Resources Centre, Acacia Road Bedford	Language materials, checklists, *ESL Initial Stages* (booklet) Notes on reading schemes etc
Community Education Centre, Southfields South Street, Coventry	*From Home to School, Going up, Reading . . . What every parent should know* and many other items.
Reading/Language Centre Hepton, Miffield West Yorks (Miss S Walker)	Many locally produced items
NAME National Secretary Madeleine Blakeley 23 Doles Lane Findern, Derby	Authoritative analysis of social and educational problems and information of a practical nature is available from the National Association for Multi-racial Education. Booklets produced by this

Association include *Chinese Children in Derby* by N Fitchett, *Describing what to teach in E2L lessons* by G Ward. The Association has branches in most parts of the country, publishes newsletters and organises meetings and courses

The National Association for Remedial Education Central Office 2 Lichfield Road Stafford	A number of practical booklets available which are valuable to teachers extending basic skills, eg *A to Z list of Reading Materials/Phonic Skills, Games to Develop Reading Skills* etc. The association has many local branches and runs both local and national courses. Small numbers of ethnic-minorities are in some areas dealt with by the local 'remedial' service
NATESLA (c/o Lambeth Language Scheme) South Lambeth Adult Education Institute Dick Shepherd School Tulse Hill SW2 Also various regional committees and addresses	A recently formed association concerned with the teaching of English to adult ethnic-minority groups and individuals; it has produced an excellent *Catalogue of Resources,* giving information about most materials and programmes which might be used with senior E2L pupils or adults either in classes, groups or being tutored at home. The association runs meetings and courses and produces very informative newsletters

Teaching Materials Related to Particular Cultural or Ethnic Backgrounds

In addition to long-term build-up of knowledge about general, social and educational questions, teachers have an immediate need for booklets, pictures, filmstrips, slides, recordings and other teaching materials for information about their pupils' countries of origin, for topic development and for general understanding. Some of these items can be used for language practice. Most can be followed up with some kind of creative work.

Initial work with particular cultural background materials is usually confined to the pupil-group to whose interest they primarily relate. Later, however, activities based upon them should be extended to all the pupil-groups to help stimulate interest and give a wider understanding of each others peoples and cultures.

Materials available for these purposes include items produced by the Resource Centres in Coventry, Bedford, Bradford and many from sources such as:

ILEA Heinemann Teaching Kits	*India/Africa/China* (these include teacher and pupil information books, slide packs and cassette story)

IKON Productions 36 Yew Tree Road Witley, Surrey	Slide packs and large pictures with teacher's notes: *City and Village Trade, Transport* etc.
SOMA Books 28 Kennington Lane London SE11	*Buddah. Wildlife. Art,* etc. Painting books. Many published items for most cultural backgrounds
Third World Publications 151 Stratford Road Birmingham	*Graded Book Packs for a Multicultural Society* at Nursery, Infant, Junior, Middle and Senior Levels. (each pack contains 12-15 books)
Hong Kong Government Information Services 6 Grafton Street London W1X 3LB	Various information sheets, booklets. Films and slide sets for hire eg Films *Port of Hong Kong* *Homes for Hong Kong* etc. Slide series *Education/Housing* *Agriculture/Contrasts*
Hong Kong Tourist Association 14-16 Cockspur Street London SW1	Various films for hire: *Hong Kong, The Magic Stone,* *Happy Valley* etc.
Hong Kong Trade Development Council 14-16 Cockspur Street London SW1	Films for hire: *Ready to Wear Festival* *Venture Hong Kong* etc.
Religious Education Centre West London Institute Higher Education Borough Road, Isleworth Middlesex	*Calendar of Religious Festivals* and other booklets and papers
Third World Publications Ltd 151 Stratford Road Birmingham	Books and booklets of all kinds related to various backgrounds including a number of interest to Chinese pupils

Some publishers have items which are useful at particular stages eg:

Longman	*Stories from Ancient China*
Heinemann	*Favourite Stories from Hong Kong* *Favourite Chinese Stories* *Favourite Stories from Taiwan*

The Free Approach

Many of the best ideas for language work, especially with young children, derive from a philosophy that regards first-hand experience and a rich, stimulating environment as the most important and useful influences upon the development of linguistic skills.

These experiences often involve the children, either individually or in a group, going on visits to places of interest, working on projects of various kinds, engaging actively with something that appeals to them and generally getting involved in situations which provide them with something to talk about – with each other and with the teacher and other adults. This first-hand experience can be used later, for discussion and many types of follow-on activities. During discussion sessions, the teacher can guide the language work generally and, from time to time, 'focus' the conversations into areas that he has selected. He can bring in new words for the children's vocabulary, new patterns of speech, and extend work as the occasion and the pupils' need and abilities allow.

E2L children in a multicultural class will not, however, be able to gain full benefit from this approach as their knowledge of English is often insufficient for them to understand enough of what is going on, and many of them will lack experience of important concepts, native cultural traditions, etc.

It is necessary, therefore, with the E2L children to devote a fair amount of time and effort to *more structured work* and to initiate and extend *systematic practice* in basic skills of all kinds through a variety of media.

The amount of structured work needed varies, of course, according to the ages and ability levels of the pupils as well as to the organisation of the group, either in the class or withdrawn from it. The materials available and the needs of the curriculum must also be considered.

The Structured Approach

The presentation and initial practice of new language points is often developed through work on the structural patterns of English, ie words are put together in the form of sentence frames:

"This is a	glove" shoe hat	"It's my	glove" shoe hat	"It's on the	table" chair floor

Certain parts of the frames are fixed while others are capable of substitution.

Teachers, of course, go on to extend these sentence patterns in other ways and give practice with plural forms of nouns and verbs and so on:

"These are	gloves" etc.	"They're my (his) (her)	gloves" etc.

Question forms can be used in this way:

"Is this a/glove?" "Are they your/gloves?" etc.

Sample programmes for work with language patterns with 'immigrant' children will be found in *Teaching English to Immigrants* by June Derrick (Longman 1976). Detailed suggestions for the development of structure patterns are in *A Guide to Patterns and Usage in English* and *The Teaching of Structural Words and Sentence Patterns* (Stages 1–4) by A S Hornby (OUP 1978 and 1973).

Important points for consideration by the E2L teacher

1. Initial language work and associated concepts should be linked, as far as possible, to real situations, objects and events.
2. All the topics, situations and work tasks should be as relevant as possible to the pupils' interests.
3. Items should be presented clearly and initial work should proceed slowly and carefully.
4. The pupil should be made to listen carefully. He needs interesting oral teaching to train him to understand what he hears and to say what he needs to say.
5. The pupil must be encouraged to use his new language by talking frequently to the teacher / other teachers / a partner / his group / other groups / people outside the classroom.
6. Revision, checking and re-checking should be done frequently in order to build up from a good foundation.
7. The teacher should check and build upon language that the pupil has acquired from other sources.
8. Presentation and initial practice of new language points should be in short intensive sessions, and repeated fairly frequently. Extended sessions are often counter-productive.
9. New vocabulary is best taught in the context of familiar sentence patterns. New sentence patterns should be practised using well known vocabulary.
10. Progressively higher standards should be aimed at in all oral, reading and writing work.
11. The need for 'correction' should be balanced with objectives encouraging spontaneity and creative endeavour.
12. Pupils' individual strengths and weaknesses should be noted in order that appropriate action can be taken.

Practice Work

New language points which have arisen either from experiences in free situations or in more controlled presentations can be practised through many types of activities.

Oral practice (and, later, associated reading and writing) may be based upon: chains, language drills and language games, question and answer work, songs, rhymes, dialogues and plays. Work may even be related to PE, dance and sport.

Example of a language chain:

Shopping Chain

Build up a chain round the class, increasing the number of purchases with each pupil.

P1 Yesterday I went shopping and I bought some apples.

P2 Yesterday I went shopping and I bought some apples, and some tomatoes.

P3 Yesterday I went shopping and I bought some apples, some tomatoes, and some potatoes, etc.

Oral work may also be connected with a rich variety of art, craft and creative ventures such as class, group and individual pictures, and collages, topic booklets, etc. Plans, charts and graphs can provide a focal point for discussion and a link with maths and environmental studies.

A comprehensive selection of over 400 activities and games for language work will be found in the *SCOPE 1 Teacher's Manual* and the *Notes* for the various course components. The *CONCEPT 7–9 Teacher's Books* for *Listening and Understanding, Concept Development* and *Communication* Units provide many others.

Many of the books on language development for indigenous pupils can be adapted for ethnic-minority pupils eg

Listening to Children Talking by J Tough (Ward Lock)
Language Teaching Games & Contests by Lee (OUP)
English Language Teaching Games for Adult Students – Books 1 & 2 by L Hill (Evans)
Language Development Activities by S Weltendale (NARE)
Themes for Language Learning by F Skitt (A & C Black)

All practice work should, of course, attempt to build up systematic comprehension and study skills which are needed for all levels of school work and everyday life. The brief notes which follow give some information about these vital areas of work and make suggestions for various types of organisation for practice in groups or individually.

Comprehension and Study Skills

Levels of comprehension

Systematic and progressive levels of general comprehension skills and question and answer work are essential to successful language programmes.

Experienced teachers have for a long time taken this into account in the development of basic skills with both indigenous groups and second-language learners.

To many teachers, however, comprehension skills have often been connected with the pupil giving back facts in response to questions about real-life situations, pictures and texts.

Because of this a number of educationalists through their research have recently attempted to help teachers recognise different levels of comprehension and the various skills involved.

A useful summary of progressive comprehension skills gives four principal levels:

1 Literal comprehension
2 Interpretive level with a number of study skills
3 Critical and evaluation level
4 Creative level

Each of these levels can be developed through a number of sub-skills.

For the purposes of this Guide most of the information and examples given below are for the first two levels, literal and interpretive. Critical and creative levels should, of course, be lead on to and incorporated in work when appropriate.

Comprehension skills may be developed and tested through many types of media familiar to the child: films, TV, recorded items, objects, pictures and reading materials and, of course, real life.

With the second-language learner most of the early work in a new topic needs to be introduced orally. Because vocabulary and structures associated with a new topic or situation have to be taught and practised, there will tend to be a strong initial emphasis on literal levels of work, especially in the recognition of details, locating or identifying facts, etc.

Each of the literal level examples given below can be developed, through a progression of tasks, to higher levels of attainment.

1 Literal Comprehension

This level is concerned with getting the direct literal meaning of an idea, of a picture-detail, word or sentence from items visible or from facts stated in a text, such as:

Recognition of details (locating and identifying facts).

Recognising the 'main idea' (supplying a title, drawing a picture to illustrate a story / finding main thought in a paragraph / writing headlines).

Recognising sequences (story sequences, first, last; oldest, youngest; in front of, behind; aspects of time).

Comparisons and contrasts (matching or selecting like or unlike items / using charts / aspects of distance: furthest, nearest, etc.).

Organising items into categories (colours, shapes, sizes of objects / lists of words eg 'These are animals / plants' etc.).

Following oral and written directions ("Show me . . . point to . . . touch . . . put a cross on the man . . ." / obeying instructions).

Cause and effect (match item against action: the boy . . . is running / complete sentences: 'he couldn't eat it because . . .' / general discussion involving 'why' and 'because').

Character traits (the boy was kind, the girl was happy, etc. /choose a word in a paragraph that shows how a person felt, or the type of person he was).

2 Interpretative level

This includes items listed in the literal levels above but is more concerned with supplying meanings not directly stated in the text. It also involves a group of thinking skills:

Synthesising (organising jumbled words into sentences), organising jumbled sentences into a paragraph, selecting information from various parts of a passage and arranging them into a meaningful whole).

Speculating, predicting, anticipating.

Drawing conclusions from given information (reading paragraphs and writing conclusions).

Generalising from conclusions about a particular point.

Interpretative levels also include a number of important study skills such as locating, skimming, classifying, summarising and using notes. These are listed, with examples, separately

3 Critical levels

These include higher skills such as:

Judging between fantasy and reality (pupils decide which of two or more statements or sentences are 'fact' or 'fantasy'). Discussion of the appropriateness or relevance that a particular sentence has to the main idea of a story or paragraph.

Making inferences (happiness is inferred from a smile / a frown . . . etc.) and making contrasts with facts actually expressed in an extract.

4 Creative level

This level grows out of the others but in it the student goes beyond the implications of the situation, picture or text and brings in aspects of creative thinking to express new ideas and gain new insights.

The higher skills of comprehension develop best when they are practised orally in a group. Alternative answers can then be discussed and dialogue between pupils and pupil and teacher encouraged so that later written work can be based upon greater understanding.

Levels of Comprehension: Sample Questions.

The sample questions below are selected to illustrate different types of question and answer work that might be used at various stages of comprehension development with an E2L group.

For convenience they are related to the well-known fable *The Fox and the Stork (SCOPE Storybook* version).

Questions at literal levels:

recognising details 1 Questions relating to details of the story as told or read or depicted in the illustrations; or to work with flash-cards of words, phrases and language patterns selected from the story: "Who is this ...? What is this ...? What are these ...? How many ...? What does this say ...? etc.

the main idea 2 "Is this story mostly about ...?"
a) Some animals
b) 2 plates and 2 bottles
c) A fox and a stork

sequencing 3 "What did the fox do first?"
"What did the stork do after that?"

organisation 4 "Make a list of things that you can see in the picture on page 2"
"Make a list of words from the story which begin with 's' ..."

oral/written directions 5 "Show me / point to / touch / put a cross on the . (picture items)"
"Put a line under the word which says ..."

cause and effect 6 "What happened when the fox tried to drink the soup in the jug?"

Questions leading into interpretative levels

main idea	7	"Is this story mostly about ... two jokes?" revenge? two dinner-plates?
sequencing	8	"What do you think the fox did when he got home after his visit to the stork?"
cause and effect	9	"Did the stork enjoy his lunch at the fox's house?"
drawing conclusions	10	"Was the fox wise/silly etc. to go to dinner at the stork's house after he had had such a joke played on him?"
prediction/anticipation	11	"Finish this story: 'The next day the stork felt sorry for playing such a trick on the fox so he made a big pan of soup and ...''
drawing conclusions	12	"What tells you that this story didn't take place yesterday?"

Questions at critical levels

author's purpose	13	"Is this a true story? ... Why do you think so? / Why don't you think so?" "Why do teachers like to tell children stories like this one?"
fact and fiction	14	"Can foxes 'talk' ? Do storks drink soup? Do animals have houses?"

Study Skills

Study Skills are needed by the pupils in order to make satisfactory progress through school and for everyday life. Work on them should begin as early as is possible.

Skill	*Early stages*	*Later work*
locating information using content tables index dictionaries pictures, maps, charts, plans typographical aids (headings, italics etc.)	alphabetical order work, sorting and sequencing, dictionary work: "What is the first word that begins with 'e' etc. using an index to find items in a book or catalogue etc. plotting page numbers against the words in the text	further dictionary work, synonyms and antonyms, telephone directory work, answering questions by using a table of contents, finding a particular information section in a reference book, locating items in a comic, magazine, newspaper
skimming, scanning finding a word or statement in a text which helps answer a question or for checking purposes	re-reading a paragraph or page to answer a simple question, looking for a key word in a sentence or paragraph, finding information from a text to help fill in missing words in given sentences	finding facts by using an encyclopaedia or reference book etc. finding the meaning of a word in a passage from given clues
classifying	putting things or words	grouping according to more

sorting and arranging items according to particular criteria	into groups: colours, toys, books, shapes or things that might be seen in a particular place, "Which of these words belongs or does not belong on this list?"	difficult classes: vehicles – dwellings – energy, foods, etc. give pupils three words which belong in a particular class and ask them to suggest others, classifying parts of speech: nouns, adjectives, verbs
summarising	re-telling a story in a few sentences: a orally b in written format, making up instructions to show how something is used or done	condensing a paragraph/article
making notes	naming or listing items, characters mentioned in a situation, picture story or text, re-telling short story or incident from given notes of important check points	extracting main sentences and reducing them into notes, introducing sub-notes

Class and Group Organisation

Some Organisational Possibilities

1 The plan opposite suggests five basic ways of organising a multiracial class or group for work in English as a second language. A general class lesson followed by work-tasks at progressive levels of difficulty. If the first sets of questions are carefully chosen to be at fairly easy revisionary levels, a breathing space can be created which allows the teacher some time to initiate individual or small-group coaching.

If the questions are carefully graded, pupils should continue to work through them until they each reach a level at which assistance or further instruction is required.

2 A class introduction with related work-tasks, similar to (1). In this case the tasks have been designed at three distinct levels to match three separate groups. Each group is therefore able to work at its own level.

This is, perhaps, a more efficient system than (1) and has the advantage of leaving two distinct sets of work-tasks untouched by each group so that they can be used later for further progressive work or revision.

3 A circuit of separate group tasks so that as well as playing a general supervisory role the teacher can spend as much time as possible with a particular group, coaching and on oral work etc.

4 Work in pairs with a full class can be difficult to administer. This plan suggests occupying at least half the class with a miniature lesson and associated tasks in order to promote time for supervision of the partner-work. Groups can be changed over on a later occasion.

5 Opportunities for individual work by half of the class at a time. To be successful this needs careful planning and supervision, with *accurate recording* of individual and group progress and needs.

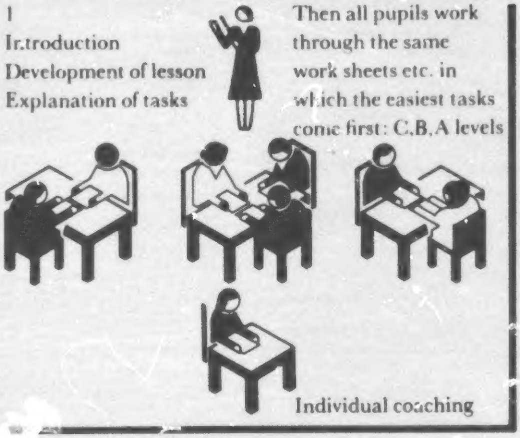
Some Organisational Possibilities for Class and Group Work

A B C (D) represent groups of varying ability/attainment levels or different ethnic-minority groups.

1

Introduction
Development of lesson
Explanation of tasks

Then all pupils work through the same work sheets etc. in which the easiest tasks come first: C,B,A levels

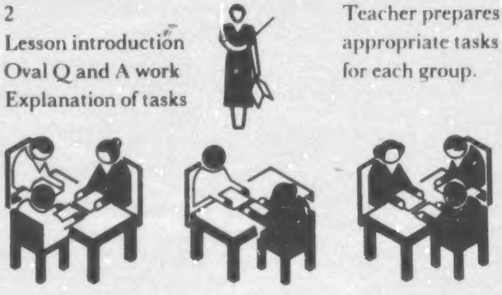


Individual coaching

2

Lesson introduction
Oval Q and A work
Explanation of tasks

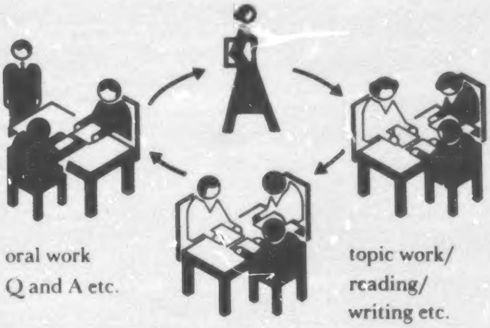
Teacher prepares appropriate tasks for each group.



Summary/Revision Q and A/Remarks etc.

3

Teacher organises a circuit of work-tasks



oral work
Q and A etc.

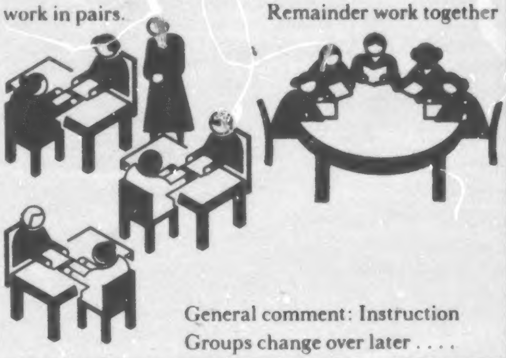
topic work/
reading/
writing etc.

maths/subjects/creative etc.

4

Selected pupil groups work in pairs.

Remainder work together

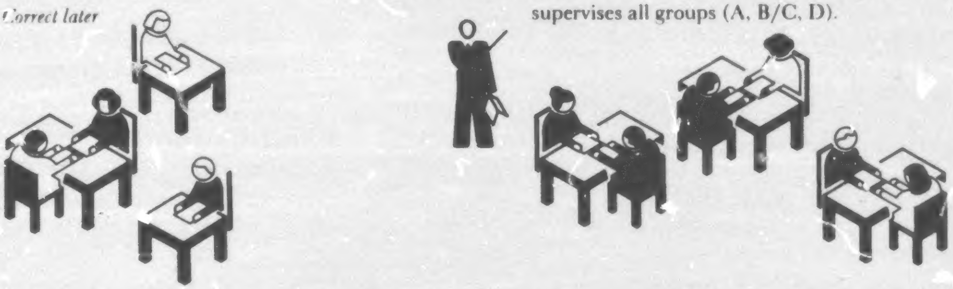


General comment: Instruction
Groups change over later . . . .

5

Groups A and B
pupils do previous set individual work according to needs
Correct later

Groups C and D
Mini-lesson/presentation explanation of tasks pupils do graded work tasks. Then teacher supervises all groups (A, B/C, D).



(The two halves change over for second part of period) Teacher calls class together for comment etc.

When groups have been working on their own as outlined in (2) or (3), it is good teaching practice to draw them together as a class for general observations, additional instruction and summaries.

A number of variations on these basic types of class organisation are possible, to suit a wide range of ability in the pupils.

Group work is often most successful when:
The teacher is available for consultation.
Less-able or beginner groups are small to allow for good supervision.
There is variation in activities to stimulate interest.
Assignment work is at the correct level and gets more difficult progressively.
Directions are clear and simple and can be easily checked by pupils.
Reserve activities are at hand for groups and individual pupils who finish early.
Pupils understand how the groups and tasks relate to their work-programme.
The groups are flexible and can be changed to meet new needs, new arrivals etc.

Different Types of Group

Teachers of multicultural classes will probably be dealing with pupil groups of varying levels of attainment and ability as well as of different cultural backgrounds.

A number of different types of groups can be selected to meet a variety of needs. Each has particular advantages and disadvantages.

Type of group	Description	Advantages	Disadvantages
at achievement level	teacher grades pupils according to achievement levels (A,B,C, D etc.)	cuts down ability range to be catered for, easy to organise	individual needs are not always covered
for particular skill or need	teacher selects group to coach in short sessions while rest of class otherwise occupied	caters for individual needs, short regular practice is beneficial	needs good organisation – right materials – 'know how' by teacher
social choice	pupils own choice of group composition (ethnic / cultural?) perhaps under a particular 'leader'	good *espirit de corps*, better pupils help less favoured	could lead to isolation – too much talk in own first language – *us* versus *them* attitude
according to a particular interest	pupils choice mutual interest subject area, topic creative task etc.	high motivation, good mixed-ability work possible	some difficulties in long-term planning, needs supervision and encouragement

research	teacher selects group composition and study area	can be planned well ahead	research study projects only suitable for advanced E2L pupils
tutorial pair	an advanced pupil coaches partner of lower attainment	good for revision, consolidation with new arrivals/pupil with absence record	mutual agreement is necessary, pupils tire easily, needs supervision
partner work	teacher pairs pupils and organises or supervises programmes and tasks (see *CONCEPT 7–9* Unit 3)	good oportunities for dialogue between partners and practice with skills	needs careful organisation and control
individual work	pupils work on their own at own levels and for own needs	can create good working atmosphere	good range of material needed, needs good organisation, correction and coaching.

To sustain successful group work and practice at different levels, the E2L teacher needs knowledge about the most useful and versatile materials available for his many purposes, and expertise in adapting and extending them in various ways.

Above all he needs to be able to make good use of simple aids and apparatus for presenting items and for producing practice materials.

Aids and Equipment These should include commercial materials, teacher or pupil produced items and materials which link with particular cultural backgrounds.

Some of the most effective teaching of new language concepts and new topics is done from reality, with the pupils themselves involved. But this is, of course, not possible as often as teachers would like, and frequent use has to be made of other ways of presenting themes and of extending, consolidating and revising language work etc.

The summary below shows some of the stages of work which can be done with the simpler types of aids and equipment usually available in schools and colleges. Teachers need to use a variety of presentation and practice techniques and as wide a range of equipment as possible.

Presentation and Practice: General Possibilities for E2L Groups

reality	*large visuals*	*projected pictures*	*moving pictures*	*recorded items*	*general equipment*
real situations and experiences with the pupils directly involved, simulated reality	large pictures collages wall charts maps plans etc.	slides filmstrips OHP items episcope work	with sound if possible: TV film film loop etc.	tapes cassettes with visual support, language-master, *Synchrofax*	spirit/ink duplicator, heat-copier, electric scanner, photo-copier

Work sheets and work-tasks should be devised to give further practice and to extend development into appropriate reading and writing stages. Details of addresses are given at the end of this chapter.

Magnet-Boards / Colour-Boards

A metal blackboard, or colour-board has uses for introductory or extension work in E2L.

Items such as figurines (people, vehicles and animals), or word-slips, sentence-pattern strips can be displayed on the boards by using small magnets or magnetic strip. Magnetic strips are obtainable from Magnetic Displays Ltd (Sheffield). Other sources of boards and magnets include many educational publishers eg E J Arnold (Leeds).

Items presented on magnet-boards or colour-boards can be linked with chalk or felt-marker work.

A picture, chart or map (on thin paper or card), can be attached to the board, or a picture projected onto it from an OHP etc, so as to act as a background for items superimposed by magnets.

The *SCOPE 1 Teacher's Manual* has many suggestions for the use of magnet-boards for language and general work of all kinds. The course *Scenes* are designed specifically for this medium.

Thermal Copiers

A thermal copier is invaluable for producing stencils from which language pictures, worksheets, sets of story illustrations can be printed and also for making transparencies from similar originals for presentation on an overhead projector.

The chart on page 41 indicates the possibilities for these processes as well as for simpler methods.

Suitable originals include items produced by teachers and pupils themselves, materials obtainable from E2L Resource Centres such as those listed on page 27 and items selected from commercial sources.

Commercial materials might include items similar to the *SCOPE 1* materials, many of the black and white line drawings for topics, skills, work tasks, stories etc. from Remedial Supply Company, Wolverhampton and items selected from the lists at the end of this chapter.

Copyright considerations must be born in mind, particularly when using commercially produced materials. See the pamphlet *Photocopying and the Law*, obtainable from the Publishers Association, 19 Bedford Square, London WC1 (20p).

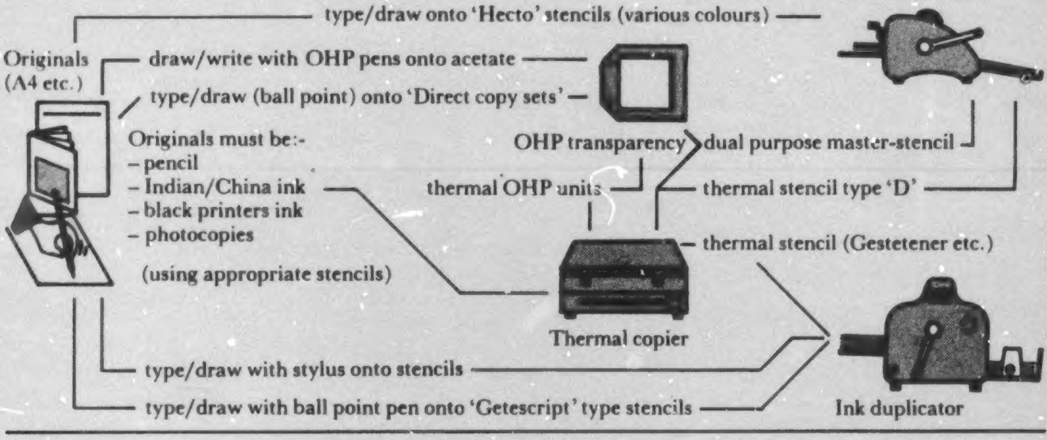
Overhead Projectors

There are great advantages in being able to present and work with large-scale, projected pictures of items linked to the teaching programme.

Useful ready-made transparencies for presenting on an overhead projector (OHP) include the range of several hundred topic and skill-extension programmed booklets in the Milliken range, obtainable via Ofrex/Fordifax.

'Dual Purpose Units' as obtainable from Ofrex/Columbia are extremely useful. These master-sets can be put through a thermal copier with the material to be copied. The resulting master-stencil can be used both as a transparency and also to print up to 100 copies on a spirit copier. If care is taken when printing the master stencil can be used again for further projection.

School and Classroom Reprographic Possibilities


Spirit duplicator
type/draw onto 'Hecto' stencils (various colours)
Originals (A4 etc.)
draw/write with OHP pens onto acetate
type/draw (ball point) onto 'Direct copy sets'
Originals must be:-
– pencil
– Indian/China ink
– black printers ink
– photocopies
(using appropriate stencils)
OHP transparency
dual purpose master-stencil
thermal OHP units
thermal stencil type 'D'
thermal stencil (Gestetener etc.)
Thermal copier
type/draw with stylus onto stencils
type/draw with ball point pen onto 'Getescript' type stencils
Ink duplicator

Duplicators

In addition to printing on paper, most duplicators will print directly onto light or medium weight card. This process is useful for producing picture cards, word slips, visual discrimination items, copies of strip story pictures (perhaps for matching to printed scripts), maths models, model houses and many types of starters for creative projects.

Spirit copiers can also print on to acetate or polythene so that pictures or work sheets can be projected on the OHP and used to give initial explanation and for later correction and revision.

Worksheets and Work Cards: Protective Covering

Expendable workbooks can be turned into re-usable worksheets by being enclosed in transparent folders.

Plastic bags (500g quality) can be purchased from a polythene manufacturer for as little as 3p each for an A4 size and are invaluable as work sheet holders. Pupils can write answers directly onto these, using appropriate felt markers. Answers can be erased later, with a damp cloth, and the work sheets re-used.

Strip/Slide Projectors

There are a number of sources of filmstrips and slides suitable for topic development, language work, etc. Information relating to particular cultural and ethnic backgrounds and key items will be found at the end of this chapter.

There are now available relatively inexpensive projectors which are easy to use and give good light output in partial blackout conditions. The *Elmo S300* (with semi-automatic slide and filmstrip attachment) is particularly useful and adaptable for both the classroom and with small groups.

Individual plastic handviewers for slides are obtainable for a few pence (eg *Focus* slide viewers, Michael Benn, Wetherby) and can be used to set up individual tasks related to sets of slides and work sheets etc.

Cassette Recorders

There are many uses for these in language work and topic development, including:

1. Recording conversations, and general 'testing' activities with individual pupils to help establish errors in speechwork and reading etc.
2. Recording of songs, rhymes, directions and commands for use in appropriate sessions.
3. Pupils making own recordings of information, or disc-jockey type programmes introducing extracts from cultural-background music, etc.
4. Teacher recording a story or a reader (for reading practice) at a level and pace to suit particular groups.
5. Recording sets of commands or tasks similar to *CONCEPT 7–9* unit 1 *Listening Skills*. (Pupils work at small group or individual level on prepared work sheets.)
6. Recording voices, sounds etc. from the school, local area or for a topic of interest.

A wide selection of items recorded commercially for educational purposes is available eg LDA, RSC, Arnolds *SCOPE 1 Storybook*, Longmans Structural Readers, *CONCEPT 7–9*, ILEA etc.

A paper *Making and Using Recordings* is available from Bradford Metro (Mr Leclerc). It gives suggestions for work at all levels, and lists many useful recordings that are available from commercial and educational sources.

Part 3 Initial Programmes for Chinese Children at Different Levels

Teachers should try to follow as far as possible the general suggestions and principles put forward in Part 2 on 'General Strategies for Language Learning', 'Comprehension and Study Skills' and 'Organisation' etc. You may also like to consult the word lists and guides to language structures provided in the appendix to this Guide.

Attention must be paid throughout to the pupils' patterns of error, word order problems and general linguistic difficulties, as surveyed in Chapter 3 and systematic help given to remedy faults in speech and general English usage.

The suggestions which follow are for teachers who are new to work in English as a second language and are involved with the education of groups of Chinese pupils at fairly early stages.

Levels of Attainment: Testing

Before you can plan effectively any language development or reading programme it is important to know what has already been covered by the pupils in their previous work in English. Information about this may be available from record cards and from discussion with previous schools and centres. Some of the ethnic minority pupils may have been tested with the NFER tests for proficiency in English. Others may have been tested at the same time as indigenous peer groups, with reading and other tests produced for 'English' children. But the results may not be very reliable, due to cultural differences, gaps in knowledge and understanding, speech and pronunciation problems and general first-language interference etc.

Yet, teachers of multicultural classes and all those who take special groups out of classes and at language centres, etc. need to know the approximate attainment levels of their pupils and any particular difficulties they may be experiencing from first-language interference.

This can be ascertained fairly effectively by procedures such as the following:

> Interview each pupil individually, briefly asking him questions about himself, his family, his interests, familiar objects he is given to handle and selected pictures.
>
> The questions should be arranged to suit the pupil's age and previous schooling and should include different types of 'literal' questions with others at 'interpretative' levels (see notes on levels of comprehension on page 32).
>
> From the pupil's answers to the questions and his degree of success in completing simple tasks, an impression can be gained of his general level of attainment and some of the difficulties he may be experiencing.

An impression of a pupil's present attainment in reading can be obtained by a routine such as the following:

> Arrange for him to read a short passage from selected reading materials eg a *SCOPE 1* reader, *Link-Up, Sparks,* Longman's *Structural Reader.* Record this if possible on your cassette recorder.

Have a second copy of the items he is reading, on which you have placed a sheet of tracing paper.

Write his name and the date on this and mark down his patterns of error on this, using some simple code. For example, a *line above* any word or part of word he does not read or has difficulty with; *dots above* letter combinations he tries to read by phonic analysis, and whether by *letter names* or *letter sounds* (a simple method of doing this is outlined in *SCOPE 1 Teacher's Manual*).

Ask the pupil appropriate questions about the text he has read to ascertain if he is reading with any degree of understanding.

Later examination of the pupil's reading mistakes (as marked on the paper and from the recording) will help decide which particular attainment or progress group he might join and any particular coaching he might need. Comparison of a pupil's initial recording with later ones will indicate his degree of progress.

For convenience and in line with the summary plan on page 24 the outline programmes are considered for three principal age groups: Infant, Main-Stream and Senior.

Infant Levels

General Approach

The normal programme of concept and language development that you use with indigenous infants should be followed as far as possible.

If you require ideas and programmes to help with systematic development in areas of auditory discrimation, auditory memory, expressive language, fine and gross motor skills, tactile and visual discrimination, etc, you will find the Holt-Saunders Information Pack *Developing Pre-Reading Skills* an invaluable source of programmed lessons.

The Schools Council Project Book *Listening to Children Talking* (J Tough) contains many suggestions for developing conversation and comprehension skills with young children. The ideas are especially useful for individual and small group work. Select, adapt and use as many pictures, stories, filmstrips, slides as you can obtain which are applicable to the pupils' age and attainment levels and which link with their Chinese cultural background and interests.

Focus on areas of language that you have introduced through your normal infant activities and create opportunities to practice them and to teach necessary skills and concepts in *small groups*.

Organisation

Use some of the suggestions for group organisation from page 37, ie

Example (3) is effective with younger pupils.

Example (5) can be modified for work with young children in that 'groups A and B' might be doing creative work – painting, collages, etc – whilst you take the remainder, ('C' and 'D' on the plan) for specific language and concept development.

Language Development Programme

If you are going to be at all systematic with your language development, you will need some form of language programme, or at least a check list of important vocabulary and language patterns. This should, of course, be related to the Chinese pupils' particular interests and special problems. Sources of ideas and general programmes for infant level work include:

SCOPE Handbook 3 (Longman). This contains suggestions and ideas developed by the Schools Council Project in English for Infant Children. Its chapters include outlines of pupils' language needs in areas such as language for identification, qualification (ownership and attributes etc) and relationships (comparisons, sequence work, space, time, hypothesis, cause and effect).

Breakthrough to Fluency (E Garvie, Blackwell). This book discusses language and learning across cultures with possibie educational approaches, and gives outline programmes for language work based on 'the language kit-bag', the community happening, story telling and centres of interest.

Activities and Games

A wide range of games and activities is useful for introducing and practising language points and basic skills. Sources of these, in addition to the items in other sections, also include:

The *SCOPE 1 Teacher's Book* and the notes accompanying the course materials.

The notes accompanying each of the many games and language practice items produced by LDA (Learning Development Aids, Park Works, Norwich Road, Wisbech, Cambs). Useful ones for initial work from LDA include items dealing with listening skills, visual recall, visual perception, visual discrimination etc. Send for their illustrated catalogue. The language development book *Teach Them to Speak* by CEM Shiach, (Ward Lock, 1972).

Materials

Make use of a full range of general infant level apparatus and materials supplemented with any items designed to help with individual and small group practice work. See the lists at the end of the chapter for general sources and obtain any infant level materials produced by E2L Resource Centres.

Speech work/Special problems

Consult chapter 3 of this Guide for information on first language interference and suggestions for practice work. See also *SCOPE Handbook 2: Pronunciation for Immigrant Children* which, although not referring to Chinese children as such, gives practice ideas with many of the problems they have in common with other E2L groups. A *Language-Master* or cassette recorder can be useful here for small group and individual practice work.

Further Development

As the pupils' English and accompanying concept development improve, extend work using the following:

1 A wider range of programmed materials to help develop reading skills

eg (a) selected Stott *Programmed Reading Materials*, particularly their newly-added spirit-master practice sheets (b) further LDA materials.

2 A handwriting programme, using perhaps the Remedial Supply Co. pads.

3 Controlled story telling and related discussion, using RSC strip stories and some of the 50 stories in the *Historiettes en Images* series by European Schoolbooks Ltd. This can be followed - when appropriate - with word/phrase/sentence matching activities and the introduction of writing activities using the pictures as visual support. Incorporate any Chinese etc. stories you can obtain into this area of work.

4 *Letter Links 1 and 2* (Holmes McDougall). There are spirit-master packs which give work programmes in *Concepts of Print* and in phonic development. Many of the Milliken spirit-master packs (Ofrex/Fordifax) are useful for extending reading and writing skills.

5 Further work in linguistic areas as outlined in chapter 3 of this guide.

6 A language check-list or outline structured scheme which extends your (Chinese) pupils' early vocabulary and language pattern work into slightly more advanced areas. The *SCOPE 1 Language – summary Wallchart* and *Index of Language Activities and Games*, (available from Mr Leclerc, Bradford Metro) bear in mind the needs, interests and special problems of all your groups. Many of the *SCOPE 1* items have an age-range which goes down to about 6+ years. These include the *Scenes*, the *Song and Story* cassette, the spirit-master pack, workbook and early readers. Work with these could profitably take you into the reading schemes and materials in general use in your school with the indigenous pupils.

E2L Outline Programme from First Stage *Main-stream level*

ORAL 1 Introduce and practise selected language development programme *through* "reality" priority topics pupils' interests selected materials with accompanying development of all related concepts *SCOPE 1 Teacher's Book/Course Materials*	→	6 Continue language programme *using* "reality" experiences, games models, drills, songs, rhymes 7 Introductory speech-work corrective coaching *SCOPE Teacher's Book: Speech Work Summaries*	→	11 Revise important language points Extend structural-pattern work *through* additional experiences further materials 12 Pronunciation/speech work programme and remedial coaching 13 Oral work to establish vocabulary/structures/concepts of first picture reader(s) *SCOPE Teacher's Book/Handbook 2*	→
READING 2 Central pre-reading programme alphabet sorting recognition 3 Establish first sight vocabulary *use* labels, notices, flash cards, etc. *include* safety, general information, requests, commands, social-sight items *SCOPE 1 Teacher's Book*	→	8 Flash-card activities and sentence building related to "language experience approach", course language scheme, priority topics, selected materials, "high frequency words" 9 First letter-sound work	→	14 Reading activities to establish vocabulary/structures of first picture reader 15 Group and individual reading practice with first picture reader(s) 15b Further reading practice with: items from language programme 'high frequency' words (coaching for difficulties)	→
WRITING 4 Develop fine motor-skills into systematic programme of 5 'writing pattern' work *with* appropriate media linked creative activities *SCOPE 1 Teacher's Book* *RSC Writing Pad A*	→	10 Handwriting practice (with programme of diminishing clues) *use* pupils' names, etc. language course items "language experience approach" examples *SCOPE 1 Spiritmaster sheets* *SCOPE 1 Workbook* *RSC Writing Pads B and C*	→	16 Writing development linked to current oral work reading materials 'high frequency' words *SCOPE 1 Spiritmaster sheets* *SCOPE Workbook/Picture Book* *RSC Writing Pads B and C)*	→

Separate lists of suggested materials and sources of ideas might be produced in individual schools for each of the numbered areas.

Main Stream Pupils: (7+ to 14)

Your choice of programmes for Chinese pupils in this age-group will depend on the situation they are in, eg multicultural class, language centre or a group withdrawn from a class, and their ages and present levels of attainment. Older pupils will need to move on much more rapidly because they have less time available, and they will need extra materials related to their interests and to school subjects.

Levels of attainment

Check the pupils' levels of attainment and special difficulties using the techniques outlined on page 43. Either note down your findings or record them on a cassette for later comparison.

Cultural and Ethnic Backgrounds

Keep in mind any special difficulties and the likelihood of first-language interference. Obtain and use as many pictures and stories, information books, teaching materials, etc. as possible which relate to Hong Kong etc. and to the pupils' general cultural interests.

General Methods

Follow the methods outlined in Part 2: 'General Strategies for Language Learning', particularly the section 'Comprehension and Study Skills', and look at the chart below. *Teach from reality*, using real objects and real situations where possible. Check and revise constantly.

---

17 Revise/extend oral work
Add new structural patterns
use additional materials
further aids

18 Oral work to establish
vocabulary/structures/concepts
of first 'real' reader

SCOPE 1 Reading Work Cards - Vocabulary and structure list from SCOPE Reader 1

19 Activities to teach vocabulary/
structures/concepts of Reader 1

20 Group and individual reading
practice and coaching with
reader
course language scheme
writing practice linked
items

21 Early word-attack skills
'concepts of print' etc.

SCOPE Picture Book

22 Systematic practice to improve
handwriting/lay-out
lead into pupils making group
and individual:
'topic of interest'
books
picture dictionaries
and

23 'language-experience-
approach' books

24 Establish language and concepts
of 'other' readers in series.
Give related reading practice

25 Use 'check-tests' to indicate
levels of attainment and
'special difficulties'
individual and group
coaching and
remedial work

26 Phonic-development programme

27 Spelling programme

28 'Levels of comprehension'
programme

29 Controlled written-exercise
programme (leading to early
creative work)
selected work
cards/books

30 Develop handwriting towards
'joined together' and
'more advanced' styles

RSC Writing Pads C and D)

31 Revise/check progress

32 Extend oral and reading work
activities using:
additional topics
further experiences
'new' materials/aids
more subject-linked
items
language brought in by
pupils from 'other
sources'
(Make sure that all reading and
writing is married to *meaning*
and that pupils really
understand all concepts
and language being
dealt with)

33 Further written exercise
linked to revision
general reading
and oral work
current affairs
'subjects'

34 Supervise handwriting
correct and coach
lead on to more
advanced styles
and lay-outs

RSC Writing Pad D
RC Phillips Materials

DEVELOP: organisation, materials, "know-how" of teacher - syllabus, curriculum - expectation, ability, age-interests, needs of pupils

Make sure that the pupils are involved as much as possible and really understand everything that you are putting over. The progression should be from oral to reading and writing, using language games and all types of activities for follow-up and practice work. Many of these will be stimulated by the materials you can obtain (see lists in the following pages) and items you have adapted and produced yourself.

The main objectives are to *teach in patterns of language* rather than in isolated words and phrases and to build up pupils' skills in the four language areas of listening, speaking, reading and writing. To help you to do this you need a well thought-out *language programme* or, at least, a check-list of vocabulary and language patterns. Sources include:

1 *SCOPE 1 Teacher's Manual* and course materials.

2 A programme similar to the one outlined in the Appendix to this Guide or from the check lists obtainable from the Bedford Resource Centre. Alternatively you can adapt from the above to suit your own particular situation and the pupils' interests and level of attainment.

Reading Schemes

Normal reading schemes present special problems for children who are learning English as a second language.

First there is *vocabulary*. Native English-speaking children use most readers already knowing the meaning of most of the words in them as well as some of the variations in meaning these words may have in different contexts. But all the words have to be *taught to*, and *understood by*, each E2L pupil. The second problem is related to the *patterns of language* used in the readers. These have to be carefully worked through with the E2L pupil and taught in relation to the concepts and conventions of English and of the particular readers in question. Notes are available via Bedford Resource Centre. These were produced initially by local authority areas that had examined popular reading series and commented upon the points of language and grammar in them which cause difficulty with particular pupil groups.

June Derrick's tape/slide lecture (available from the University of Reading) gives an excellent summary of the difficulties and possibilities for various E2L groups and recommends suitable reading schemes.

Senior Pupils and Adults

General Methods

There is still no good E2L UK course suitable for Asian or Chinese pupils leading from near-beginner stages to levels at which these pupils can be transferred to the general schemes used by older indigenous groups.

Thus you will probably have to develop your own scheme, using materials produced for work in other fields, eg:

The *SCOPE 1 Course* (ie produced for slightly younger age-groups)
Courses produced for 'English as a Foreign Language'
Materials produced for the teaching and extension of English overseas
Items linked with Hong Kong are particularly useful
Materials produced for structured and programmed work with certain indigenous groups (slow-learners, adult literacy pupils, ROSLA items).

Schemes adapted from such sources need, of course, to be supplemented with many worksheets, exercises and items produced by yourself. The summary charts on pages 40 and 41 show some of the possibilities of simple aids and equipment for assisting in this process and for helping with presentation and practice work, in a variety of media. If you are working with a full class of older pupils in which the Chinese group are only one element you can make use of some of the suggestions on organisation for group work outlined earlier in Section 2 for example from the chart on page 37, ie

> Example (2) suggests organisation for introductory work at class level followed by work tasks in three separate groups.
>
> If the Chinese pupils work together as one of these groups, they can be given tasks and coaching to suit their attainment and needs.
>
> Example (5) can be particularly useful for older pupils and adults. Using this arrangement a Chinese group could be given regular opportunities to work at their own pace with their own exercises, practice materials and subsidiary course books. They might, in the main sessions, follow the principal course book and language programme and build up study skills of various kinds.

It is important that with older pupils (who have less time available for their education) you should try to equip them as quickly as possible with the *study skills* they need. Try to use the ideas and programmes in the Part 2 'Comprehension and Study Skills', relating them to the work you are doing with your readers, and worksheets or course books.

Materials

Select items marked S (Senior) from the lists which follow. If your pupils are absolute beginners you will need to include some of the early reading and work card materials from Senior beginner S and Mainstream suggestions M.

If your pupils are beginners, and you have them for sufficient time, you can follow a programme similar to the one suggested for Mainstream pupils, but selecting teaching materials with as high an interest range as possible.

Part 4 Useful Teaching Materials for E2L Work with Chinese Groups

Schools Council Project Materials

As suggested on the summary chart on page 24 and in other parts of Chapter 2, many teachers dealing with pupils from beginner stages find some of the Schools Council materials such as *SCOPE 1* and *CONCEPT 7–9* useful for ideas and adaptation.

In the second edition of *SCOPE 1*, all the principal course items are available separately and most have their own integral notes and suggestions for work at various levels and in various situations. The full course materials now include:

Scenes (background pictures and magnet board figures)
Picture cards
Picture book
Work book
50 writing work cards
Reading work cards
Spirit-master topic sheets
A cassette of songs and stories
A story book with notes and suggestions
8 readers
8 plays and dialogues

The *Teachers Manual* provides general advice on classroom organisation, teaching objectives, techniques and useful equipment. The course is built around a well-planned language scheme which develops through step by step descriptions of new language points and their applications. Language items are relevant to the pupils' language-needing activities both in school and outside, as well as to linguistic considerations. The *Teachers Manual* also contains hundreds of suggestions for language games, general skill and concept developing activities and creative projects. References are made throughout to available commercial items which can extend the Unit themes and also to practice materials which can be produced easily by the teacher to suit his own situation and pupil mix. The manual also covers speech work and pronunciation and gives a full treatment of reading and writing and appropriate index.

SCOPE Handbook 2 provides ideas and programmes for speech work and pronunciation problems for various ethnic minority groups. Many of the suggestions are applicable to Chinese groups.

CONCEPT 7–9 materials were produced initially as a result of research and trials into areas of skills needed by West Indian pupils in the UK. One of the units of materials has now been finalised specifically for the initial problems of the West Indian pupils (Dialect Kit) but the other three units are recommended for work with all pupils needing help with certain basic concepts and language skills.

Most E2L teachers have found elements of the *Concept* materials useful. Teachers with Chinese groups usually favour the *Listening with Understanding* (Unit 1) and find *Communication* (Unit 3) helpful. Popular principal sources of inexpensive materials for teaching a wide range of basic skills and for language development work of all kinds include:

LDA (Learning Development Aids Ltd) Aware House Duke Street Wisbech, Cambs	Free catalogue on request
RSC (Remedial Supply Co) Dixon Street	Illustrated catalogue available
Gibsons 17 Fitzroy Place Glasgow	Send for advertising broad sheets – all topics

Each of the above has several hundred items, many of which are invaluable for E2L work and the teaching and extending of basic skills.

General Materials used for Initial Work with E2L Groups

	Age/Interest Code
Infant and young pupils generally	I
Main stream (about 7 to 14 years, at near beginner and early intermediate stages)	M
Senior and adult beginners	(S)
Senior and adults, general work	S

Item	Sources	Age/ Interest	Adaptation/Development
Models etc.			
houses, vehicles/farms	Educational Suppliers	I/M	language and topic development
Action Man etc.	Toy Manufacturers		make model townships – use for direction,
Play Mats/Tumpte toys	E J Arnold, Leeds	I/M	polite expression etc. re-use later for written
Chameleon Street *Family Cellograph*	Philip & Tacey	I/M	work
Hats and Uniforms	Cheryl Playsuits	I/M	conversation, role play
Feelie Bags	LDA, Aware House Duke St Wisbech, Cambs	I/M	concepts, discrimination conversation
Perim Plastic Templates	Philip & Tacey	I/M (S)	topic development with associated language work,
Animal Templates	E J Arnold, Leeds	I/M	– controlled creative starters
Children at Work & Play *(rubber stamps – many other series)*	Philip & Tacey	I/M (S)	verbs in action, parts of the body etc.

Item	Sources	Age/ Interest	Adaption/Development
Set the Scene, Kitchen	ESA	I/M	Jig-saw type presentations
Magnet Board Items			
Scenes (background pictures with figurines of people, vehicles etc.)	SCOPE 1, Longman	I/M (S)	structural practice with language courses topics etc. (. . . purchase magnetic strip/magnet boards from Magnetic Displays, Endcliffe Road, Sheffield)
Language Resource Pack	E J Arnold, Leeds	I/M (S)	
Breakthrough to Literacy (figurines, flash cards etc.)	Longman	I/M	
General Pictures			
The World Around Us (4 large detailed pictures)	E P Productions Wakefield	M/(S) S	teach necessary vocabulary and structures deal with only one section of a picture at a time, later extend to use all picture
Que Voyez Vous 20 large pictures (rubber stamps available to print out picture details)	European Schoolbooks	I/M	paste over French titles with English/'Chinese' equivalents
Don Byrne Picture Composition pads (4) (and work books)	Longman	M/(S) S	select most applicable to pupils interests, follow with work from work books
Wall Pictures for Language Practice (Byrne)	Longman	M/(S) S	
Maggie Ling Posters "I Brush my Teeth" etc.	Health Education Council 78 New Oxford Street London	I/M	
Mathematical Vocabulary Conversation Pictures	ESA	M/(S)	
Our World Wallcharts (plants, animals, transport etc.)	Macmillan	M/(S)	Select most applicable for topic development, re-use later for early written work

Item	Sources	Age/ Interest	Adaptation/Development
Foods for General Health *(many other posters)*	Dairy Council	I/M (S)	Usef[illegible] all levels of oral work, early written links, relate to everyday life language-experience approach etc.
Road safety posters *(various titles and topics)*	ROSPA	All levels	
You, Me and Us *(series of 40 pictures)*	Blackwells	M/(S) S	Rather expensive but useful range
Social Signs	LDA	M/(S) S	Situation pictures plus photographs of real signs
Look the [illegible]ook *(posters etc.)*	LDA	M/(S) S	Useful for domestic science links
Film Strips/Slides			
The Far East, Hong Kong	Gateway	M/S	Cultural links comprehension development
Pets, People, Road Safety, Animals etc. *(many titles)*	Angus Stewart The Old Rectory Roughton, Norfolk	I/M/S	Language work of all kinds through useful range or topics.
Visit to a Farm, The Fire, etc. *(many other titles)*	The Slide Centre Portman House 17 Brodrick Road London	I/M	Use as a strip stories, Q and A work, comprehension etc.
The Story About Ping, Anansi Spider, etc.	Weston Woods Ltd. PO Box 2 Henley-on-Thames Oxon.	I/M	Chinese and other cultural links
Talking Points *(traffic, urban housing)*	AV Productions 15 Temple Sheen Road London	S	Link everyday life – driving, follow with related written work 'Highway Code' etc.
Meet Your Neighbour	E P Wakefield	M/(S) S	5 excellent film strips with booklets (food clothing, travel, work)
OHP Materials			
Milliken Materials *(select from hundreds of booklet/topic titles with matching spirit master sheets)*	Ofrex-Fordifax	All levels	Booklets range from infant skills, pre-reading etc. to subject developments items

Item	Sources	Age/ Interest	Adaptation/Development
Overhead English (fairly expensive pack)	AV Productions	S	Make own work sheets to develop language work into written skills
Listening Skills/ Comprehension (with recordings)			
Sound Lotto 1 & 2 *Listen Here/Sound Absurdities* *Verbal Absurdities* *(many others)*	LDA	All levels	Integral notes give programmes and ideas for work at various levels
CONCEPT 7–9 Unit 1 Listening with Understanding	E J Arnold, Leeds	I/M (S)	you might re-record cassettes using local accent/Cantonese (?)
Criss Cross Routes/ Umbrellas (and other word games)	Good Reading Ltd.	M/(S) S	
Listen etc. etc.	R S C Dixon Street Wolverhampton	I/M	Sounds plus pictures with workbooks etc.
Phonic Blending/Phonics	R S C	M/(S)	
Sound Lotto 1,2 & 3	R S C	M/(S)	Match sounds with picture cards and with worksheets
Oral Comprehension	R S C	S	
Let's Speak English (L M Kit)	Language Master Bell & Howel	M/(S)	Supplement with own additional cards
Vocabulary Pictures Language Games etc.			
Picture Cards (SCOPE 1)	Longman	I/M (S)	Use with course language scheme, language games
Spirit Master pad (SCOPE 1)	Longman	I/M (S)	Many ideas for uses already mentioned
Early Language, Stamps	Philip & Tacey	I/M	Select most applicable

Item	Sources	Age/ Interest	Adaptation/Development
Adhesive Picture Sheets *Phonic Stamps*	L D A	I/M (S)	Select most applicable
Picture Pads	Gibsons, 17 Fitzroy Place, Glasgow	I/M	Phonically reg. words short vowels etc.
Children at Work and Play (rubber stamps)	Philip & Tacey	I/M (S)	Many other sets are available
Photographic Sequence Cards	Taskmaster	(S)/S	Check lists for similar items
Language and Reading Games (20)	Macmillan Educational	M/(S)	practices plurals, adjectives, opposites prefixes etc.
Starters	MacDonald	I/M	Select appropriate titles
Tangrams	Penguin	M/(S) S	Uses ancient chinese puzzle game for maths links and creative work
Geometry with a Tangram (Fletcher)	W and R Holmes	M/(S)	Useful programme of work
Sequential Thinking, *Concept Cards* *Photographic Action Cards* *Action Cards 1,2 & 3* *Descriptions* *Prepositions* *Why/Because* *Sounds the Same*	L D A	All levels	Integral notes give basic ideas; relate to your own language course or check lists etc.
Language for Learning *Unit 3*	Heinemann ILEA	I/M (S)	'Enquiry & Elimination'
Unit 5A & B	ILEA (only)		'Compare & Enquire'
Monopoly	Waddingtons	S	Teach/extend necessary vocabulary and structures practice polite expressions
Giant Ludo, Snakes & Ladders	E S A	M/S	
The House That Jack Built *Misfits*	Spears Games	I/M	

Item	Sources	Age/ Interest	Adaptation/Development
Lets Go Shopping (various shops)	Philip & Tacey	I/M (S)	Bring in use of polite expressions, formulae etc.
Think Links	E J Arnold, Leeds	I/M (S)	
Play and Practice	John Murray	(teacher)	Ideas book
Learning Logic/ Logical Games	E S A	(teacher)	
Topics, Stories and Skills *Action Pictures/ Stories Without Words etc. (over 80 items)*	R S C	All levels	Very inexpensive, good source of OHP/Heat copier items
Create a Story (series) *Zero Books*	MacDonald	I/M	
More and Less *Real Things:* *colour* *number* *about the house*	Philip & Tacey	I/M	
My Word/Another Word	Schofield & Sims		
Work with Language Conceptual thinking/ Situations/Stories	E J Arnold, Leeds	M/(S)	
Link-Up Colourmasters (extends work with Link-Up readers)	Holmes McDougal	I/M	Rub pictures into pupils books or onto card to make magnet board figures
Our World Books	Burke Publishing Co.	I/M	Rather middle class in visual content but good selection of visual topics
Aware (First Themes)	Longman	M/S	Topics include 'Homes, Sharing, I Care'
First steps to Language	Wheaton	M/(S)	Programmed reading, writing (discussion) tasks. Useful to follow Scope 1 Work cards
First Phonic Booklets	Methuen	I/M	Photographic picture dictionary items. Useful and inexpensive

Item	Sources	Age/ Interest	Adaptation/Development
Language in Action (spirit masters)	Macmillan	I/M	Letter-information practice sheets, extensive number of sheets, needs selection)
Stott Readmasters 1, 2 & 3	Holmes McDougall	M/(S)	Covers phonics, general word attack skills and syllabication
Remedial Refresher Cards	Gibsons (Glasgow)	M/S	Useful programme of phonic/spelling work tasks. Many similar items from same publisher
Look Think and Write Again	Chambers	M/S	Select most appropriate for your age and ability groups
Historiettes En Images (over 50 strip stories)	European School-books	I/M	Useful sequencing, oral work, guided written follow up
SCAMPS (various titles, colour photograph series)	E J Arnold, Leeds	I/M (S)	Make up own stories at correct level for oral and written work
SCOPE 1 Workbook (Workcards)	Longman	I/M (S)	Link with course scheme or use to suit own situation
Oxford Junior Workbooks *Oxford Senior Workbooks*	O U P	I/M(S) M(S)S	Covers many early skills select topics and items to suit groups, alter if necessary by adding or deleting
Guide Lines	Schofield & Simms Huddersfield	M/(S)	
Springboard Workbooks	Schofield & Simms	M(S)S	recommended for work with many sub-skills
Composition Through Pictures *Beginning Composition Through Pictures*	Longman	M(S)S	Format gives much help to teachers (useful to make into OHP items)
Staras Leavers Programme	R S C	M(S)S	Inexpensive source of ideas
Letter Links 1 & 2 (with Pupilmasters)	Holmes McDougall	M(S)	Pack 1 teaches concepts of print. Pack 2 covers phonic development etc.

Item	Sources	Age/ Interest	Adaptation/Development
Stott Programmed Reading Kit	Holmes McDougall	I/M (S)	Items are now obtainable separately
Through the Day Worksheet pad	Philip & Tacey	I/M	Trace off and use in non-expendable ways?
First steps to Language	Wheaton	I/M (S)	Use orally, make spirit-masters similar to pages but linked to cultural background of your groups
Readmaster 1 & 2	Holmes McDougall	I/M (S)	Use for practice with word-attack skills etc.
My First Work and Play Book	O U P	I	
I Can Use Coins *I Can Measure*	Wheaton	I	
I Can Write a Story 1, 2 & 3		I/M	
Pictures & Conversation	Ward Lock	I/M	
Parosi (magazine)	BBC	M/S	Useful source strip stories (mostly asian)
Umbrellas, Constellations Criss-Cross Routes	Good Reading Ltd	M(S)	Popular games dealing with word-attack skills
Maths for Life (with Pupilmasters)	O U P	M(S) S	Everyday topics with good reading writing links
Open Science	Schools Council	M/S	
Concept Science	Methuen		
Science Pads	RSC		
Recorded Stories			
SCOPE Storybook	Longman	I/M/S	Cassette contains word-for-word selection of some of the STORYBOOK STORIES (with notes)
Pictures in Sounds (several cassettes)	R S C	M(S) S	Use initially for discussion, later use as base for written work

Item	Sources	Age/ Interest	Adaptation/Development
Sound Stories etc.	L D A	All levels	
Structural Readers	Longman	M	Select titles to suit pupils' interests eg Red Pirate, Green Pirate; Detective from Scotland Yard. Write out story from recording – use for reading/ comprehension etc.
Griffin & Pirate (recorded cassettes) (cassette stories)	E J Arnold, Leeds	M/S	
Audio Books (various titles)	Holmes McDougall	M/S	
Readers and Stories			
SCOPE 1 Readers (7)	Longman	M(S)	Complete with notes
Link-Up Reading Scheme (with spiritmaster packs)	Holmes McDougall	I/M (S)	Follows on well from or parallels work with SCOPE 1 Readers
Sparks	Blackie	M(S)	Make sure that you teach vocab. & concepts'
Terraced House Books	Methuen	I/M	Oral work, and supplementary reading
Dominoes	Oliver and Boyd	I/M	
Lets Go To The Shops/ Banks etc.	Franklin Watts	M/S (S)	With some groups you might use pictures but substitute own text
The House of Wong (from Time for Reading series)	Ginn	I/M (S)	Good cultural links
English Picture Readers	O U P	(S)S	Graded vocabulary and structures
Graded Readers	Evans	S	Useful follow on
Elementary Stories for Reproduction	O U P	S	Readers for older pupils
Oxford Colour Readers	O U P	I/M	Popular series
Trackers/Rangers	Macmillan	M/S	
Stories from Aesop	O U P	M/S	

Item	Sources	Age/ Interest	Adaptation/Development
Course Books and Exercises			
Primary English for Hong Kong (1978 edition)	Longman	M(S)	Revision of early language patterns: extend into reading and work tasks; adapt to be non-expendable
Modern English for Hong Kong	Longman	S	Needs good introductory programme: good cultural links
Read it, Write it	Longman	M/S	Use with top groups, comprehension etc.
First Things First *Look Listen and Learn*	Longman	M/S	Needs good introductory and supplementary work
100 Exercises in Basic English	Gibsons	M/S	Many other items available
Read, Write & Remember (books 1 to 8)	Blackie	M	
Say What you Think	Longman	M(S)S	Very useful
Practice Through Pictures	Longman	M/S	Adapt dialogues and drills to suit own groups
Cue for a Drill	O U P	M/S	Includes good ideas for pictorial and diagram situations
On Your Own Two Feet (booklets)	Heinemann	S	Holidays, Saving, Starting Work and other useful topics
Mainline English Spirit masters 1, 2	Holmes McDougall	M(S)	Helpful for developing written work into early creative levels
Plays			
My Dear Aunt/ A Morning in London (with tape)	Longman	M/S	Structural material. Adapt and select to suit composition and levels of attainments of your groups; teach appropriate patterns of language, concepts etc. before beginning
Seven One Act Plays (with tape)	Longman	M/S	
Inspector Thakery Calls (with tape)	Longman	M/S	

Item	Sources	Age/ Interest	Adaptation/Development
Chinese Material			
The First Few Weeks	via Foyles	All levels	(A Chinese/English phrase-book for use in British schools)
I Live in Hong Kong *(in the My Home series)*		I/M	Supplement with updated information
Favourite Stories from Hong Kong/Taiwan *Favourite Chinese Stories*	Heinemann		
Stories from Ancient China *The Stone Mother & Child* *(Structural Reader Series)*	Longman		

Teachers involved with E2L work should be sure to inspect publishers exhibitions at courses and conferences (NAME, NARE, NATESLA etc.) and examine materials at first hand in order to decide on their suitability for particular pupil groups and their levels of progress.

Broadcasting schedules should be checked frequently for radio or TV programmes intended to help in multicultural areas. Any booklets should be obtained and adapted to suit your pupils.

A useful source of advice on materials suitable for general language, reading and study skills will be found in the booklet *Ways and Means* (Globe Education).

For further list of material for developing skills and at intermediate stages etc. contact – Mr M Leclerc c/o T F Davies Centre for Teachers, Bradford.

Vietnamese Materials discussed above are also relevant to the teaching of English to Vietnamese. Little language-teaching or cultural/ethnic background material specifically for Vietnamese has as yet been published. What is available can be obtained from:

The Centre for Applied Linguistics
1611 N Kent Street
ARLINGTON
Virginia 2220
USA

Chapter 3

Language Difficulties for Cantonese Speaking Pupils

R C Hunt and So Yan Kin
With notes on Vietnamese by J H Davidson

Introduction

Common Errors in Grammar
1 Punctuation
2 Function Words
3 Word Order (by So Yan Kin)
4 Word Forms
5 Vocabulary
Common Errors in Phonetics
List of Useful Reference Books

Introduction All immigrant pupils learning English are affected by the grammar and phonetics of their own mother-tongue. The absorbed linguistic rules of their mother-tongue interfere with their acquisition of English, and each linguistic group has certain difficulties and makes particular types of error when learning English. But the process of learning a new language should be seen as just one aspect of the broader social framework to which an immigrant group has to adapt when moving to a different cultural environment, and Chapter 1 of this Guide has given a background introduction to this point.

The vast majority of immigrant pupils in Britain from Chinese-speaking areas of the world have Cantonese as their native-tongue, and so the research for this project has concentrated solely on the common errors made by Cantonese-speaking people when learning English. But teachers may have pupils in their class who speak a different dialect, such as Chiuchow, Hakka or Mandarin, and they should take this into consideration when using the material in this section. In general, the grammatical points outlined here will still apply, but there are distinct differences between Cantonese phonetics and those of the other dialects.

It is not intended to give complete and comprehensive coverage of every possible error, but it is hoped to cover the most common errors made in the structure and formation of English, and also in English speech sounds and pronunciation.

The most significant difficulties facing Cantonese-speaking pupils are that the English language is:

a *inflected*
b *polysyllabic*
c *non-tonal and intonational*

whereas Cantonese is:

a *non-inflected*
b *monosyllabic*
c *tonal*

If we look at these three points in turn, we should get a better understanding of the cultural and linguistic trauma that affects Cantonese-speaking pupils when they first arrive in Britain. This examination should throw some light on the nature of the language barrier that has to be overcome, even when some English language is already known from previous Hong Kong schooling.

a *Inflection*

The English language employs *inflection*. This means the form of a word is changed to indicate comparison, mood, number, person, plurality and tense.

For example, English adjectives of one syllable and some of two syllables change their form when indicating the comparative or superlative; but because Cantonese is a non-inflected language, the Cantonese adjective *never* changes its form.

Positive	fast	big	nice	good	bad
Comparative	faster	bigger	nicer	better	worse
Superlative	fastest	biggest	nicest	best	worst

Further examples of inflection occur in English nouns and verbs

Noun		Verb Forms
Singular	*Plural*	
sail	*sails*	sail, sails, sailed, sailing
stand	*stands*	stand, stands, stood, standing
thought	*thoughts*	think. thinks, thought, thinking

These changes of form are a further illustration of the problems faced by Cantonese-speaking pupils when learning an inflected language.

b *Syllables*

English is a *polysyllabic* language. English words are made up of one or more syllables. Most English words consist of more than one syllable, with component syllables often having no independent meaning in themselves:

com-plex e-du-ca-tion mo-di-fy-ing

It is only when the component syllables are combined together in a word that a meaning is derived.

In contrast, Cantonese is *monosyllabic*, with every syllable bearing a significant meaning.

Another way of contrasting the syllables in English and Cantonese is to look at the structure and variations of the sounds.

Both languages use a wide range of vowels and diphthongs. A S Hornby analyses General British (standard spoken Southern English) as having 12 vowels / 8 diphthongs, while R Huang suggests 8 vowels / 10 diphthongs for Cantonese.

English has 24 consonant sounds, which is considerably more than the number of consonants available in Cantonese. The English practice of using combinations of consonants (consonant-clusters) at the beginning, in the middle and at the end of words is a linguistic device which rarely occurs in Cantonese, and it is a constant problem for the pupils.

Consonant clusters:

initials	*medials*	*finals*
*cl*uster	con*str*uct	consona*nt*
*ph*rase	fu*nct*ion	difficu*lty*
*st*ress	sy*nt*ax	subje*ct*

c *Tonality and Stress*

Although it appears that English is a *non-tonal* language, in actual practice a wide range of tonal variations can be heard when sentences are said in different ways:

A: Excuse me. B: Yes?
A: Are you free? B: Yes!

These tones do not change the meanings of the words used or the overall meaning of the sentences. In linguistic terms the tones do not have any phonemic[1] function.

In contrast, the *tonal* variations applied to spoken syllables in Cantonese change the meaning of each syllable[2], and thus the overall meaning of the sentence too.

A second difference between the two spoken languages is that English is a stress-timed language whereas Cantonese is not. English is spoken with variable stress on syllables. In polysyllabic words, one of the syllables bears the main stress and this may vary in a group of related words:

phòtograph photògrapher photogràphic

When listening to spoken English, one can hear strongly stressed sounds occurring at fairly regular intervals, with weakly stressed sounds compressed between them.

Pleáse cóme nów.
Pleáse can you téll me the wáy to the státion.

These strong and weak stress forms and the overall intonation patterns give shades of meaning and emphasis to what is said.

In comparison, the intonation pattern of a Cantonese sentence depends on the tone of each syllable contained in the sentence. Furthermore, because Cantonese does not use the linguistic device of stressing syllables to give shades of meaning as does English, equal weighting is usually given to all syllables when spoken.

The 'sing-song' effect sometimes given to spoken English by Cantonese-speaking beginners illustrates the problems caused by the differing stress and intonation patterns of the two languages, and happens when Cantonese tonal patterns are transposed onto spoken English.

Cantonese-speaking pupils facing the linguistic demands of English stress and intonation, which are so completely different from their own mother-tongue patterns, would be greatly helped by continual practice in this area of language learning as soon as they first arrive, so that they can absorb the correct forms from the beginning. Teachers may be aware of the importance of this question from their own experience. Misunderstandings and communication problems can so easily occur when the spoken stress or intonation is wrong and does not conform to the linguistic conventions and polite forms of established social norms.

Cantonese can give six different meanings to the same syllable by giving six basic tones to it. The following table shows how a typical Cantonese syllable can have six different meanings according to the specific tone applied to it:

Tone number	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	*6*
Tone	*high falling*	*middle rising*	*middle level*	*low falling*	*low rising*	*low level*
Syllable	Wan^1	Wan^2	Wan^3	Wan^4	Wan^5	Wan^6
Meaning	to revise	to look for	to hold	a cloud	to permit	to transport

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[1] *Phoneme: The smallest unit of sound that makes a difference in meaning in a language.*

[2] *The tones in Cantonese are phonemic.*

Vietnamese Much of what Reg Hunt says of Cantonese speakers obtains for Vietnamese speakers as well. However, certain additional points need to be made concerning the latter.

Syllables

Vietnamese phonology is considerably more complex than that of either English or Cantonese. The language has three distinct general dialect regions: North, Central and South. Additional phonological variations within these areas are, today, mutually intelligible after short exposure. These dialects give the language a range of between 18 to 33 consonants, 12 single vowels, about 26 diphthongs, and some 16 triphthongs. Very few consonant clusters like those found in English are encountered.

Tonality

There is variation in the number, articulation, pitch, and contour of tones in the three main dialects. For Northern speech one finds the following:

Tone number	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	*6*
Tone	*high level*	*high rising*	*low falling*	*fall rise*	*split level rising*	*split level low glottalised*
Example	lang	láng	làng	lảng	lãng	lạng
Meaning	wolf	to shine	village	be absent minded	a wave	to slice (meat)

Common Errors Made in Grammar

1 Punctuation

Written Chinese traditionally did not use any form of punctuation similar to the Western system, because specific characters included in the text performed this function. Even today, written Chinese has not adopted the whole set of Western punctuation marks. So the various conventions applying to the use of English punctuation are initially a problem to pupils whose own written language is expressed in ideographs (characters) and is non-alphabetic. It is helpful to give constant attention to punctuation marks starting with the full stop, comma and question mark and then moving on to the apostrophe, brackets, capital letters, colon, exclamation mark, quotation marks and semicolon.

Vietnamese Although Vietnamese is now romanised, ie written in romanic letters, its earlier character-based written tradition gives rise to problems similar to those faced by Cantonese speakers. Where punctuation is used, it follows the French system rather than the English.

2 Function Words

2.1 Articles 'a', 'an', 'the'
2.2 Anomalous verbs 'be', 'do', 'have'
2.3 Modal auxiliary verbs
2.4 Conjunctions

2.1 Articles 'a', 'an', 'the'

Cantonese does not use the linguistic device of having articles preceding a noun to indicate the definite or indefinite. The English practice of using articles causes considerable confusion to the Cantonese-speaking pupils, especially in deciding if a noun is countable or uncountable and when dealing with the various rules applying to the use of the definite article. Usual mistakes are for the pupils to use them interchangeably, put them in the wrong place, or leave them out altogether.

Type of error:
They received *a* bad news.
Every night I go to *the* bed early.
I want to be teacher, not driver.
Every Saturday I go to cinema.

Difficulty:
Problems are caused for Cantonese-speaking pupils because their language does not have either definite or indefinite articles.

A helpful approach is to regard the indefinite article 'a' as a weak form of the number 'one', and the definite article as a weak form of the demonstrative adjectives 'this' and 'that'. In fact this is roughly how the Cantonese language deals with the question.

Where it is necessary to indicate a single indefinite object then the number 'one' can be used. With a definite identification then 'this' or 'that' can be used.

An especially difficult structure is:
THE + adjective eg. the old, the poor, the rich, the sick.
This can be best explained by paraphrase:
eg. the old people, the poor people, etc.

2.2 Auxiliary or anomalous verbs 'be', 'do', 'have'

These three anomalous verbs are continually used in English, and a clear understanding of their usage is vital for the development of the pupil's English. They are fundamental components of the mechanics of the basic English tenses, and the simple negative and question forms and the formation of tenses is one aspect of English that causes considerable problems for Cantonese-speaking pupils.

Cantonese has equivalent words for the ordinary lexical meanings of 'be', 'do', 'have', and pupils have no difficulty with them. It is the other varied functions of these auxiliary verbs that create confusion:

a forming specific tenses in the active and passive.
b forming the passive.
c forming the negative and interrogative.
d forming tag questions.
e giving short answers.
f substituting for a main verb.

2.3 Modal auxiliary (anomalous) verbs

Present tense	*Past tense*
shall	*should*
will	*would*
can	*could*
may	*might*
must	–
ought	–
need	–
dare	–
–	*used*

Difficulty:

As with anomalous verbs 'be', 'do', 'have', the main area of difficulty lies in understanding the various functions of these modal verbs. Where Cantonese has direct equivalents, as for 'can', 'may', 'must', 'ought', 'need', 'dare', their ordinary function can be readily understood. It is only when these modal verbs perform linguistic functions outside their basic meaning that problems occur, such as when they act:

a As structural words in the formation of certain tense forms (future, conditional etc.), in tag questions, short answers etc.

b To indicate a wide range of meaning and feeling, such as in the polite forms of instructions, invitations, requests and suggestions; with permission, possibility and probability; commands and restrictions; ability, intention, etc.

2.4 Conjunctions

Cantonese has link words and phrases equivalent to English conjunctions. Sometimes the construction is similar to the English but some structures are completely different.

Type of error:

Where there is a similarity between the Cantonese and English, the pupils sometimes make the mistake of transposing the complete Cantonese structure into the English sentence.

Two very common structures in Cantonese are:

a *Because* 1st clause *therefore* 2nd clause
b *Although* 1st clause *but* 2nd clause

Transposed into English these cause errors such as:

a *Because* he was clever, *therefore* he passed
b *Although* she wanted the book, *but* she had no money

Difficulty:

There are many function words in English which act as conjunctions and indicate the relationship of words or phrases to each other. These function words should be introduced in a controlled and systematic way and they should be an essential part of the pupils' active vocabulary.

Some commonly used conjunctions:

and
as
for
because
but
like
since
whether
if
although
than
though
when, while
both, either
neither, nor
so as, in order
that, so that,
in order that,

3 Word Order

(by So Yan Kin)

3. 1 Statements
3. 2 Negative statements
3. 3 Yes/No-answer questions
3. 4 Positive answers to yes/no-answer questions
3. 5 Negative answers to yes/no-answer questions
3. 6 Position of adverbial expressions of time
3. 7 Position of adverbial expressions of place
3. 8 More examples of the position of time and place adverbials.
3. 9 Position of word-group modifiers of nouns
3.10 Position of adverbials of means and adverbials of instrument
3.11 Position of direct and indirect object
3.12 Position of question words
3.13 The relative clause
3.14 Comparison
3.15 Indirect questions (1) – from questions beginning with question words
3.16 Indirect questions (2) – from yes/no-answer questions
3.17 Question tags
3.18 There is/there are
3.19 'It' in subject position
3.20 'Too' as in 'too old to dance'
3.21 'Enough' as in 'big enough'
3.22 Question words and infinitives
3.23 Position of verbs and adjectives, as in 'He pushed the door open'
3.24 Separable phrasal verbs and the position of pronouns
3.25 Because, although, therefore, but and also
3.26 Verbs followed by a gerund

Structural meaning in English is signalled by word form, function words and word order. In Cantonese it is signalled by function words and word order only because there are no inflexions in the language. In this section an attempt is made to compare the word orders of Cantonese and English. The patterns selected for comparison are confined to those structures in English which often cause difficulty to Cantonese pupils. Such a selection is based on past experience with Cantonese pupils in Hong Kong. It is therefore rather arbitrary, and is by no means comprehensive. In addition to word order, this section also deals with some common errors arising from other syntactic problems.

For each pattern, examples are given in both English and 'Cantonese'. 'Cantonese' is represented by English words, and the parts of the sentence which primarily distinguish Cantonese from English are placed in boxes. Within these boxed units Cantonese word order is followed and inflexions are not used. The Cantonese particles, which are function words, are omitted from the 'Cantonese' examples.

It is hoped that the examples thus presented may serve two practical purposes for teachers. The boxed units in English are points to be emphasised. The boxed units in Cantonese may serve as visual aids. By comparing the corresponding boxed units, teachers may actually see the points of mother-tongue interference experienced by Cantonese pupils without having to know the language.

The first pattern serves as a starting point. By using the word order of a simple statement as a basic pattern, ie, the order of subject, verb and object, it is possible to indicate and compare the relative positions of different structural units such as adjectival and adverbial modifiers in English and Cantonese. The difference in word order in questions in the two languages may be similarly demonstrated.

Vietnamese Vietnamese speakers will encounter most if not all of the diffficulties discussed in this section. It should be recalled and noted (see Honey page 16) that Vietnamese may have dual forms of word order in word formation depending upon the source of the language, Vietnamese or Chinese.

3.1 Statements

a With forms of 'be'

English

1	The book	is	good.
2	She	is	kind.
3	I	am	hungry.

Cantonese

1	The book		(very)† good.
2	She		(very) kind.
3	I		(very) hungry.

Note: The word orders are similar but the equivalent of 'be' is not used in these 'Cantonese' sentences. When a Cantonese pupil carries such a language habit into English he may write sentences without main verbs.
† Words in parenthesis are optional.

b With other verbs

English

1	He	drinks	coffee.
2	She	wrote	a letter.

Cantonese

1	He	drink	coffee.
2	She	write	a letter.

Note: The word orders are the same, but Cantonese verbs are not conjugated.

Vietnamese

3.1 (a) In Vietnamese, Very *is an emphatic, and depending on which one word is used either precedes or follows the stative verb. Otherwise word order is the same as in English and Cantonese.*
3.1 (b) VNese *word order follows the Cantonese.*

3.2 Negative statements

a With forms of 'be'

English

1	The book	is not	good.
2	She	is not	kind.

Cantonese

1	The book	not (is) ‡	good.
2	She	not (is)	kind.

‡ Words in parenthesis are optional.
Here as in all other examples, 'is' is used for all forms of 'be'.

b With other verbs

English

1	He	does not drink	coffee.
2	She	does not like	reading.

Cantonese

1	He	not drink	coffee.
2	She	not like	reading.

Note: Cantonese negative statements are constructed in a different way from English. Notice the use of the auxiliary 'do' in English.

Vietnamese

3.2 (a,b) VNese *word order follows the Cantonese.*

3.3 Yes/no - answer questions

a With forms of 'be'

English

1	Is the book	good?
2	Is she	kind?

Cantonese

1	The book	good	not-good?
2	She	kind	not-kind?

b With other verbs

English

1	Do you like	Chinese food?
2	Do you go	back to Hong Kong often?

Cantonese

1	You like not-like	Chinese food?
2	You is not-is	go back to Hong Kong often?

Note: Questions in Cantonese are constructed in a completely different way from English. Teachers wishing their Cantonese-speaking pupils to become automatic with the statement and the question word order in English can give drills in their first lessons, bearing in mind that the device of inverting subject and verb to form questions does not exist in Cantonese. See also note on page 73 for explanation of 'is not-is' as a point of interference.

Vietnamese

3.3 a VNese: *for identification, confirmation, or negation of the information, quality, state, etc. that is asked about.*

1 Have correct *the book good* not.

2 Have correct *she kind* not.

3.3 b The most common structure for yes/no-answer questions is:

1 You (have) *like Chinese food* not?

2 You (have) *return Hong Kong often* not.

3.4 Positive answers to yes/no-answer questions

English

1	Is she kind?	Yes, she is.	Yes, she is kind.
2	Does he drink coffee?	Yes, he does.	Yes, he drinks coffee.
3	Do you like Chinese tea?	Yes, I do.	Yes, I like Chinese tea.
4	May I go swimming?	Yes, you may.	Yes, you may go swimming.

Cantonese

1	Is she kind?	Is,	she is kind.
2	Does he drink coffee?	Drink,	he drinks coffee.
3	Do you like Chinese tea?	Like,	I like Chinese tea.
4	May I go swimming?	May,	you may go swimming.

Vietnamese

3.4 Depending upon what form the question takes, one has the Vietnamese equivalent of yes *followed usually by the sentence in the affirmative, eg*

3.4 Is the house big? Correct, *house big. OR: big, house big.*

3.4.4 VNese *I* have (obtain) (permission) *go swimming* not?
Have, you have (obtain) (permission) go swimming.
OR: Obtain, *you* (have) obtain (permission) *go swimming.*

3.5 Negative answers to yes/no-answer questions

English

1	Is she kind?	No, she isn't.	No, she isn't kind.
2	Does he drink coffee?	No, he doesn't.	No, he doesn't drink coffee.
3	Do you like Chinese tea?	No, I don't.	No, I don't like Chinese tea.
4	May I go swimming?	No, you may not.	No, you may not go swimming.

Cantonese

1	Is she kind?	Not is,	she is not kind.
2	Does he drink coffee?	Not drink,	he does not drink coffee.
3	Do you like Chinese tea?	Not like,	I do not like Chinese tea.
4	May I go swimming?	Not may,	you may not go swimming.

Note: Notice how different the Cantonese responses are in 3.4 and 3.5. The device of using 'yes' and 'no' as introductory words for positive and negative answers does not occur in Cantonese. It is therefore important to give pupils drills to establish the patterns of "Yes, she is. Yes, she is kind", and, "No, she isn't. No, she isn't kind." A second point to note is that in responses the formula "Yes, + a positive statement", and "No, + a negative statement", does not exist in Cantonese. One can say "Yes (is), she is not kind", and "Yes (is), she is not going", in Cantonese. Drills on English answer patterns can prevent pupils from carrying the Cantonese formula into English. A third point to note is the use of pronouns, auxiliaries and contractions in the short answers in English. Whereas the verb in the question is repeated in the short answers in Cantonese, in English the auxiliary is used.

Vietnamese

3.5.1 Is she kind? Not correct, *she not kind.*
OR: Not (have), *she not kind.*
3.5.3 VNese *word order parallels both the English and the Cantonese.*
Usually:
Not obtain, *you not obtain (permission) go swimming.*

3.6 Position of adverbial expressions of time

English

1	He went to the cinema	yesterday.	
2	I am going to see him	tomorrow.	
3	He is coming to see you	at 9 o'clock.	

Cantonese

1	He	yesterday	went to the cinema.
2	I	tomorrow	am going to see him.
3	He	at 9 o'clock	is coming to see you.

Note: Although these time expressions may be used at the beginning in both English and Cantonese, they do not occur in the mid-position in English. However, adverbs of frequency such as 'always', 'usually', 'often', 'sometimes', 'seldom' and 'never' are used in the mid-position in both English and Cantonese.

Vietnamese

3.6 Adverbial expressions of time normally occur at the beginning of the sentence. Adverbs of frequency occur medially in either pre-verbal or post-verbal positions.

3.7 Position of adverbial expressions of place

English

1	He is studying	in the library.
2	He is working	at home.

Cantonese

1	He	in the library	is studying.
2	He	at home	is working.

Vietnamese

3.7 VNese *parallels the English.*

3.8 More examples of the position of time and place adverbials

English

1	He studies	in the library	every morning.
2	He saw her	in the restaurant	yesterday.

Cantonese

1	He	every morning	in the library	studies.
2	He	yesterday.	in the restaurant	saw her.

Note: Notice how different the word order is in Cantonese. It is therefore important to give Cantonese pupils drills on the position of expressions of place and time at an early stage.

Vietnamese

3.8 VNese *word order follows the English, but see VN 3.6.*

3.9 Position of word-group modifiers of nouns

English

1 The desk near the window is small.
2 The student from Hong Kong is studying here.
3 The tall man with grey hair is a doctor.
4 The woman wearing an overcoat is her mother.

Cantonese

1 Near the window the desk is small.
2 From Hong Kong the student is studying here.
3 With grey hair the tall man is a doctor.
4 Wear an overcoat the woman is her mother.

Note: In English, adjectives precede the nouns they modify, but prepositional and participle phrases follow the nouns they modify. Noun-modifiers in Cantonese, whether they are adjectives or word-group modifiers, precede the nouns they modify.

Vietnamese

3.9 VNese *parallels the English.*

3.10 Position of adverbials of means and adverbials of instrument

English

1 He came by plane.
2 She went to Italy by boat.
3 He sent the photographs by airmail.
4 They sent the news by cable.

Cantonese

1 He by plane came.
2 She by boat went to Italy.
3 He by airmail sent the photographs.
4 They by cable sent the news.

English

5 He lifted the box with one hand.
6 He cut the cake with a knife.
7 She eats with a fork.
8 She writes Chinese with a brush.

Cantonese

5 He with one hand lifted the box.
6 He with a knife cut the cake.
7 She with a fork eats.
8 She with a brush writes Chinese.

Note: In Cantonese adverbials of means and instrument precede the verb.

Vietnamese

3.10 Examples 1–4 VNese *parallels the English.*
3.10 Examples 5–8 VNese *parallels the Cantonese.*

3.11 Position of direct and indirect object

English

a 1	I bought	him	a bicycle.
2	I sold	him	the house.
3	I gave	him	the book.
4	I lent	him	some money.

b 1	I bought	a bicycle	for him.
2	I sold	the house	to him.
3	I gave	the book	to him.
4	I lent	some money	to him.

Cantonese

1	I bought	a bicycle	for him.
2	I sold	the house	to him.
3	I gave	the book	to him.
4	I lent	some money	to him.

Note: In Cantonese when the verb has the meaning of 'giving', the direct object precedes the indirect object. The first pattern in English where the indirect object precedes the direct object, does not occur in Cantonese.

Vietnamese

3.11 VNese *follows the English for 3.11 (a) Examples 1–3, 3.11 (b) 1–2.*
Examples (a,b) 3–4 involve the VNese verb cho *'to give to for', hence one finds the pattern:*
a 3. I give him/*book, or: I take the book* give him.
a,b 4. I give him *lend money.*

3.12 Position of question words

a Questions in the *statement* word order in English, ie the subject and the verb are not inverted

English

1	Who	saw	John last week?
2	Who	came	here yesterday?
3	Which book	is	yours?
4	How many people	went	to the zoo yesterday?

Cantonese

1	Who	saw	John last week?
2	Who	came	here yesterday?
3	Which book	is	yours?
4	How many people	went	to the zoo yesterday?

Note: The question words occur at the beginning in both English and Cantonese.

Vietnamese

3.12 a VNese *follows both the English and the Cantonese.*

b Questions in the *question* word order in English, ie, the subject and the verb are inverted

English

1	Who	is	he?	
2	Who/Whom	did	Mary	see?
3	What	did	she	eat?
4	How much ice-cream	did	she	eat?
5	How long	did	she	wait?
6	When	did	she	buy the ice-cream?
7	Where	did	she	buy it?
8	Why	did	she	buy it?

Cantonese

1	He		is	who?
2	Mary		saw	who?
3	She		ate	what?
4	She		ate	how much ice-cream?
5	She		waited	how long?
6	She	when	bought	the ice-cream?
7	She	where	bought	it?
8	She	why	bought	it?

Note: In these examples question words are used in mid and end positions in Cantonese, but in English they are always used at the beginning. Notice the difference in word order in the examples in 3.12a and 3.12b. It is important that Cantonese-speaking pupils can form both types of questions.

Vietnamese

3.12 b VNese *follows the Cantonese.*

3.13 The relative clause

English

1	The woman	who has just come in	is my teacher.
2	The boys	who went out just now	are my classmates.
3	The books	that you are carrying	are mine.
4	This is the place	where the accident occurred.	
5	Sunday is the day	when he is least busy.	

Cantonese

1	Just come in	the woman	is my teacher.
2	Go out just now	the boys	are my classmates.
3	You carry	the books	are mine.
4	This is	the accident occur	the place.
5	Sunday is	he is least busy	the day.

Note: The relative clause does not occur in Cantonese. Such structures occur as word-group modifiers preceding the nouns they modify. Words like 'who', 'which', etc. are not used in the Cantonese examples because relative pronouns do not exist in the language.

Vietnamese

3.13 VNese *follows the English.*

3.14 Comparison

a With 'as – as'

English

1	Jack	is	as	tall	as	Jill.
2	John	is	as	clever	as	Janet.
3	Paul	walks	as	slowly	as	Mary.
4	Peter	works	as	quickly	as	Andrew

Cantonese

1	Jack	and	Jill	equally	tall.
2	John	and	Janet	equally	clever.
3	Paul	and	Mary	walk equally	slowly.
4	Peter	and	Andrew	work equally	quickly.

b With '—er than', 'more — than'

English

1	Jack	is	younger	than	Jill.
2	John	is	taller	than	Mary.
3	This book	is	more interesting	than	that one.
4	Joan	is	more beautiful	than	Janet.

Cantonese (1)

1	Jack	young more than	Jill.
2	John	tall more than	Mary.
3	This book	interesting more than	that one.
4	Joan	beautiful more than	Janet.

Cantonese (2)

1	Jack	compared with	Jill	young.
2	John	compared with	Mary	tall.
3	This book	compared with	that one	interesting.
4	Joan	compared with	Janet	beautiful.

Note: Comparisons in English and Cantonese are constructed very differently. Notice the very different positions of words like 'Jack' and 'Jill', and words like 'young' and 'tall'.

Apart from 3.14b(1), in the Cantonese word order the names of people or things to be compared are placed almost side by side at the beginning of a sentence, and the adjectives and adverbs at the end. In the English word order the names are wide apart, occurring at the beginning and at the end, and the adjectives and adverbs occur in the mid-position.

Vietnamese

3.14a VNese *word order (1)* Jack *and* Jill *equal each other.*

3.14 b Jack young more than *Jill, so it follows Cantonese word order (1).*

3.15 Indirect questions (I) – from questions beginning with question words

a From direct questions which are in the *statement* word order.

Direct questions

1 Who came last night?
2 How many came last night?
3 What made him angry?
4 Which is her book?

Indirect questions
English

1	Please tell me	who	came last night.
2	Please tell me	how many	came last night.
3	Please tell me	what	made him angry.
4	Please tell me	which	is her book.

Cantonese

1	Please tell me	who	came last night.
2	Please tell me	how many	came last night.
3	Please tell me	what	made him angry.
4	Please tell me	which	is her book.

Note: Word order in indirect questions is a common source of error for Cantonese speakers. The pattern in 3.15 a is easier than that in 3.15 b because the word order of the indirect question is the same as that of the original direct question. Drilling on indirect questions should therefore begin with this pattern.

b From direct questions in the *question* word order.
Direct questions

1 Where is it?
2 What is his name?
3 When did she leave?
4 How did he escape?

Indirect questions
English

1	Please tell me	where	it is.
2	Please tell me	what	his name is.
3	Please ask him	when	she left.
4	Please ask him	how	he escaped.

Cantonese

1	Please tell me	it		is	where.
2	Please tell me	his name		is	what.
3	Please ask him	she	when	left.	
4	Please ask him	he	how	escaped.	

Note: This is a more difficult pattern than 3.15 a. As far as word order is concerned, there are two points for the pupils to learn. First, the question word order of the direct question has to be changed in the indirect questions to the statement word order. Second, unlike their equivalents in Cantonese, words such as ‘where’, ‘when’ etc. are always at the beginning of the indirect question.

In oral practice it is easier for the pupils to establish the pattern if the teacher uses the same expression for the first part of the indirect question, and varies only the second part. For example, use “Please tell me” at one session, and phrases such as “Please ask him”,“Do you know”, “Can you tell me”, etc. on other occasions.

In the Cantonese boxed units of 3.15 a and 3.15 b the verbs are conjugated as they would be in English, and the adverbials of time are not placed as they would be in Cantonese sentence structures since these are not the main points for comparison in these patterns. The main points are:

1 The word order of the indirect question.
2 The position of words such as ‘who’, ‘what’, ‘where’ etc.

When words indicating time and place are changed, the tense may have to be changed too.

Vietnamese

3.15 a VNese *equivalents follow the English and the Cantonese word order given above.*
3.15 b VNese *equivalents follow the Cantonese word order, but there are occasions on which one can have the question word consistently placed at the end of the sentence, eg:*
3 Please ask him she left when.
4 Please ask him he escape how.
The variation in word order depends to some extent on the question words used.

3.16 Indirect questions (II) – from yes/no-answer questions

Direct questions

1 Is he coming this afternoon?
2 Will she go next week?
3 Can John swim?
4 May the students leave now?

English

1	I want to know	whether	he is coming this afternoon.
2	I want to know	if	she will go next week.
3	Do you know	whether	John can swim?
4	Do you know	if	the students may leave now?

Cantonese

1	I want to know	he	this afternoon	come not-come.
2	I want to know	she	next week	go not-go.
3	Do you know	John		can not-can swim?
4	Do you know	the students	now	may not-may leave?

Note: Connectives such as 'whether' and 'if' are not used in Cantonese, and the indirect question in Cantonese is in the question word order. Notice that in the indirect question in English the subject and the verb are not inverted.

Vietnamese

3.16 VNese *word order*
1 I want to know (if) *he* will come *this afternoon* (or) not.
2 I want to know (if) *she* will go *see mother her next week* (or) not.
OR: (if) *next week she* (will) *go see.*
3 You know (if) *John* (have) *swim* able not.
4 You know (if) *students* (have) able *leave now* not.

3.17 Question tags

English

1 You can swim, can't you?
2 She can't swim, can she?
3 He likes Chinese food, doesn't he?
4 He won't be late again, will he?

Common errors of Cantonese speakers

1 You can swim, isn't it?
2 He can't swim, isn't it?
3 He likes Chinese food, isn't it?
4 He won't be late again, isn't it?

Note: Question tags are expressed differently in Cantonese. When Cantonese speakers erroneously use 'isn't it' as a tail question in English, they may actually be using the expression 'is not-is', which is used to form questions in Cantonese. The intended meaning of such a tail question may be "Is this correct?" or "Am I right?".
Cantonese speakers are generally unaware of the following points about question tags, or, if they are, very few can use the correct forms automatically when speaking.
i Positive statement + negative tag.
Negative statement + positive tag.
ii Pronouns must be used in the tags.
iii Corresponding auxiliary verbs must be used in the tags.

Vietnamese

3.17 VNese *word order*
The word order is the same as the English since Vietnamese has a question tag (lit. 'right-not?") which is placed at the end of the sentence, and asks for confirmation of the preceding statement.

3.18 There is/There are

English

1	There is	a book	on the table.
2	There are	many apple trees	in the garden.
3	There is	a picture	on the wall.

Cantonese

1	On the table	have	a book.
2	In the garden	have	many apple trees.
3	On the wall	have	a picture.

Note: The word order is completely different in Cantonese, as is the use of 'have' as the verb instead of 'there is/are'.

Vietnamese

3.18 VNese *word order usually follows the Cantonese.*

3.19 'It' in subject position

a About weather, time, distance and identification

English

1	It	is	going to rain.
2	It	is	dark.
3	It	is	cold.
4	It	is	nine o'clock.
5	It	is	about 400 miles from London to Edinburgh.
6	It	rains	in summer.
7	It	snows	in winter.
8	It	is	John. (As answer to "Who is it?").

Cantonese

1	Sky		going to rain.
2	Sky		dark.
3	Weather		cold.
4	Now	is	nine o'clock.
5	From London to Edinburgh	have	about 400 miles.
6	Summer	rain.	
7	Winter	snow.	
8	I/He	is	John.

Note: Cantonese pupils need to be given practice in the use of 'it' for weather, time, distance and identification.

b Substitute subject 'It'

English

1	It is necessary for him	to report to the police.
2	It is impossible for him	to pass the examination.
3	It is difficult for him	to help you.
4	It is easy for her	to make mistakes in English.

Cantonese

1	He is necessary	to report to the police.
2	He is impossible	to pass the examination.
3	He is difficult	to help you.
4	She is easy	to make mistakes in English.

Note: Common as it is in English, this structure does not occur in Cantonese.

Vietnamese

3.19 a VNese *word order follows the Cantonese, but note 5. London* distant *Edinburgh about 400 miles.*

3.19 b VNese *word order*

Vietnamese uses both these systems, often with added clarification.

1 He must *to report to the police.*

2 He not able *win exam OR: He exam* not achieve.

3 Difficult for him *to help you.*

4 Easy for her *speak error (use) language English*

OR: She perceive easy *speak error language English.*

3.20 'Too' as in 'too old to dance'

English

1	He is too old	to dance.
2	He is too old	to swim.

Cantonese

1	He is too old	(he)† cannot dance.
2	He is too old	(he)† cannot swim.

Note: In the Cantonese examples each sentence is like two separate short sentences put together, the second part being a negative statement.
† Words in parenthesis are optional.

Vietnamese

3.20 VNese *word order is the same as the Cantonese.*

3.21 'Enough' as in 'big enough'

English

1	This coat is	big enough	for John.
2	He is	tall enough	to reach the picture on the wall.

Cantonese

1	This coat is	enough big	for John.
2	He is	enough tall	to reach the picture on the wall.

Note: The word order is reversed in Cantonese.

Vietnamese

3.21 VNese *word order parallels the Cantonese.*

3.22 Question words and infinitives

English

1	I don't know	where	to go.
2	Please tell me	which one	to buy.
3	She couldn't decide	who	to invite.
4	Please tell me	when	to leave.
5	Please show me	how	to get there.

Cantonese

1	I don't know		to go	where.
2	Please tell me		to buy	which one.
3	She couldn't decide		to invite	who.
4	Please tell me	when	to leave.	
5	Please show me	how	to get there.	

Note: Since in this structure in English, words such as 'where', 'when', 'how', etc. only occur before the infinitive, it is important to establish the pattern with the pupils.

Vietnamese

3.22 VNese *word order parallels the Cantonese.*

3.23 Position of verbs and adjectives, as in 'He pushed the door open'

English

1	He	pushed	the door	open.
2	She	wiped	the saucers	dry.
3	She	cut	his hair	short.
4	He	painted	the window	red.

Cantonese

(2 possible structures)

1a	He	push open	the	door.
2a	She	wipe dry	the	saucers.
3a	She	cut short	his	hair.
4a	He	paint red	the	window.

1b	He	the door	push open.
2b	She	the saucers	wipe dry.
3b	She	his hair	cut short.
4b	He	the window	paint red.

Note: Notice the different positions for words like 'push', and 'open', and 'paint' and 'red' in English and in Cantonese. Whereas they are separated by the object of the sentence in English they are adjacent in Cantonese

Vietnamese

3.23 VNese *word order follows the first (a) Cantonese pattern.*

3.24 Separable phrasal verbs and the position of pronouns

English

a *With a noun object (two positions)*

1	She	put out	the fire.
2	He	took away	the book.
3	She	picked up	the baby.

Alternatively

1	She	put	the fire	out.
2	He	took	the book	away.
3	She	picked	the baby	up.

b *With a pronoun object (one position)*

1	She	put	it	out.
2	He	took	it	away.
3	She	picked	him	up.

Cantonese

With a noun or pronoun object (same position)

1	She	put out	the fire/it.
2	He	took away	the book/it.
3	She	picked up	the baby/it.

Note: Cantonese pupils require practice in 3.24 b, because this pattern does not occur in Cantonese.

Vietnamese

3.24 VNese *word order follows the three English patterns, and also the Cantonese in some instances, dependent upon the verbs involved in the verb series. See* VNese *note on phrasal verbs* 5.1.

she extract tree *out out earth.*
she extract tree *out out it.*
she extract it *out out earth, etc.*

3.25 Because, although, therefore, but and also

English

1 Because she was not intelligent, she failed her examination.

2 Although she has plenty of money, she does not intend to buy a house.

3 Even if you gave me a pair of jeans, I would not wear them.

Cantonese

1 Because she was not intelligent, therefore she failed her examination.

2 Although she has plenty of money, but she does not intend to buy a house.

3 Even if you gave me a pair of jeans, I also would not wear them.

Note: In Cantonese, sentences may be constructed by using 'dual conjunctions' such as 'because . . . therefore . . .', 'although . . . but . . .' and 'even if . . . also . . .'. These patterns often cause interference when Cantonese pupils express themselves in English using words such as 'because', 'although', 'but', and 'therefore' as connectives. For the same reason the word 'also' is often used in a way which appears to be either superfluous in English or not idiomatic.

Vietnamese

3.25 The Note *is relevant for* VNese *speakers.*

VNese *has structures similar to those of Cantonese, but the subordinating particles may be omitted and, in one construction, 'although . . . [but] . . . ', of the choice of words for 'although', the use of the subordinating particle* dau (dau, dù) *permits the omission of the connective 'but'.*

There are many such subordinating particles, and in constructions in which they appear, as well as in other constructions, 'also' (cũng) *is found, where it should not be translated into English; hence it can cause confusion among* VNese *learning English.*

3.26 Verbs followed by a gerund

English

1 He suggested going to the cinema.
2 She was considering going to France.
3 He postponed learning to drive.
4 She risked driving in bad weather.

Cantonese

1 He suggested go to the cinema.
2 She was considering go to France.
3 He postponed learn to drive.
4 She risked drive in bad weather.

Note: In English, verbs such as suggest, consider, etc., take a gerund as an object. Cantonese and Vietnamese speakers often mistakenly use an infinitive construction and produce erroneous sentences in English like the following:

1 He suggested to go to the cinema.
2 She was considering to go to France.
3 He postponed to learn to drive.
4 She risked to drive in bad weather.

Vietnamese

3.26 VNese *follows the Cantonese.*

In teaching Cantonese and Vietnamese pupils infinitives and gerunds it would be useful to give them practice in (1) verbs which may be followed by an infinitive, or a gerund construction without any change in meaning, (2) verbs which may be followed by either construction, but the meaning changes with the construction, (3) verbs followed by an infinitive construction only, and (4) verbs followed by a gerund construction only. As Cantonese and Vietnamese have no inflexions, people who speak them are often not aware of the existence of such different patterns in English, and generally tend to use the infinitive construction.

4 Word Forms

4.1 Personal Pronouns
4.2 Adjectives : Comparative and Superlative
4.3 Countable and uncountable nouns
4.4 Tenses

4.1 Personal Pronouns

Your pupils will probably make two types of mistake when using personal pronouns:

a *Not differentiating between genders:* 'He' and 'she', 'him' and 'her' are confused and used interchangeably:

Who is that?	She is my Father.
Where is your sister?	He is at home.
How old is your brother?	She is ten years old.

b *Not differentiating between cases:* the wrong pronoun is used as subject or object in the sentence:

I don't like she.
Where is him?

Difficulty

In Cantonese, personal pronouns do not change their form for gender or case, but they do change their form for plurality:
the pronoun *Kui* means 'he, she, him, her'.
and in the plural form *Kui dei* means 'they, them'.

This may appear to be a simple linguistic rule to acquire, but it is a very common source of error. Even Chinese-speaking people who have spoken excellent English for many years may make this error, especially when under stress.

Vietnamese

The system of pronouns in *Vietnamese* is highly complicated. It makes use of plural markers, and of specific pronouns, with an inclusive–exclusive distinction in the first person:

we (you, he/they, and I) inclusive
we (he/they and I, but not you) exclusive

and certain pairs for 'I' and 'you', indicative of social status, but it consists mainly of kinship terms (eg uncle, elder brother, grandfather, etc.) used as personal pronouns and qualified for plurality by the plural markers. Use of one term out of a possible choice will depend on such factors as relative age, status, familiarity, etc. However, there is also a detailed system of teknonymy – the use of kinship terms within the extended family system – to refer to oneself, and the person spoken to, or about. For example

Chú = you (lit. uncle = father's younger brother)
used to uncle by nephew or niece, first person being cháu = I (lit. nephew/niece).

Chú = I (lit. uncle)
used to nephew/niece by their uncle. Second person pronoun being cháu = you (lit. nephew/niece).

Chú = (used non-teknonymically) = You (lit. uncle)
used to Chinese, Indians etc. also to friends. First person pronoun being *tôi* which is a specific non-kinship, first person pronoun.
See *A Vietnamese Grammar,* L C Thompson (University of Washington Press, Seattle, 1965) Ch.13.

4.2 Adjectives: Comparative and Superlative

Adjectives in Cantonese never change their form to indicate the comparative and superlative, and the pupils have to make a considerable conceptual leap in order to adjust to the English linguistic habit of inflecting certain word forms.

Type of error:
This leads to two main types of mistakes:
a Confusing the '-er' and '-est' endings
eg. This car is fastest than that car.
b wrong usage of 'more' or 'most'.
eg. That one is most good.
That one is more big.

Difficulty
The problems, caused by mother-tongue interference, are the different ways of dealing with this linguistic structure in English and Cantonese.

To form the *comparative* in *Cantonese,* the word order of the sentence is all important. A specific function word is inserted into the sentence at a certain position, and in combination with the appropriate adjective gives the meaning of comparison.

English Word Order
This car is faster than that car.
Cantonese Word Order
This car fast more than that car.
Vietnamese follows the Cantonese order.

For the *superlative,* a specific function word is placed before the adjective:

English Word Order
This car is the fastest.
Cantonese Word Order
This car most fast.
Vietnamese Word Order
This car fast most.

4.3 Countable and Uncountable Nouns

The variations between singular and plural in English noun forms cause a lot of difficulty for Cantonese-speaking pupils, and produce errors that are not easily eradicated. Learning the categories of nouns and the permutations of all spelling conventions are formidable hurdles for pupils to overcome, and there is a considerable range of possible errors.

Type of error:
a *Spelling errors when making plurals*
babys *countrys* *knifes* *leafs*
tomatos *watchs* *womans*
Nouns with only plural meaning:
cattles polices
b *Incorrect sentence formation with uncountable nouns:*
The news are bad.
This is an interesting news.
I have a lot of works to do.
She has lots of knowledges.

That is interesting informations.
They bought some new furnitures.
Parents always give us useful advices.
Mathematics are very difficulty to study.
All the sceneries were very beautiful.
Have you done your homeworks?

Difficulty

Cantonese nouns never change their form. Most English nouns change their form from singular to plural. Apart from learning the different ways in which the plural is formed, the pupils have to decide:

(i) Whether a noun may be used in the plural, and if so in what form.
(ii) Whether a noun can take the indefinite article or numbers.
(iii) Whether a noun is countable or uncountable.

Uncountable nouns

The following is a brief selection of uncountable nouns occurring frequently in everyday spoken English. Because these nouns do not have commonly used plural forms, they are a continual source of confusion to the pupils:

advice
blood
cash
dirt
dust
earth
equipment
fun
furniture
gold
harm
health
homework
information
knowledge
laughter
machinery
money
music
poetry
progress
rice
rubbish
rust
scenery
tea
thunder
traffic
water
wheat

Vietnamese encounter the same difficulties as do Cantonese-speakers.

4.4 Tenses

Because the verb in Cantonese is not inflected for tense, mood or number, Cantonese-speaking pupils find the English verb system difficult and a profusion of mistakes can arise.

According to an error analysis carried out by William Cheng in Hong Kong (*The English Bulletin*, VI. No.2, 1973), based on 200 written scripts from three secondary schools and one college of education, the following categories of errors were identified:

Category of Error	*Frequency*
Mistakes in the use of tenses	*6186*
Mistakes in verb patterns	*2793*
Mistakes in verb form	*2400*
Mistakes in agreement	*1354*
Mistakes with conditional	*1103*
Confusion of transitive and intransitive	*1051*
Confusion of active and passive	*1046*
Mixing up form classes	*485*
Mistakes in the use of the anomalous finites	*352*
Mistakes in framing questions	*132*
Mistakes in word order (statements)	*111*
Mistakes in negation	*23*

Teaching strategy

To indicate tenses, Cantonese relies heavily on the context and introduces into the sentence specific time markers which can be phrases, words or even syllables.

When teaching the simple English tenses (present continuous, simple present, simple past, simple future), teachers can utilise this Cantonese mother-tongue practice of having time markers to denote tenses, by using appropriate time words in their examples of each particular English tense. This similarity of simple English tenses to their own language will be of some help to pupils because they will be able to experience the different tense forms in a clear context.

Tense	*English*	*Cantonese word order*
Present continuous:	She is buying a book *now*	She *now* buy book
Simple present:	She buys a book *every week*	She *every week* buy a book
Simple past:	She bought a book *yesterday*	She *yesterday* buy book
Simple future:	She will buy a book *tomorrow*	She *tomorrow* buy book

Examples of Time markers in English sentences: Useful time words/phrases

a *Present continuous tense*

at the moment, at the present, just, now, nowadays

The present continuous tense can be further demonstrated by asking questions about actions being carried out in the classroom.

What am I doing? What is he/she doing? What are you doing? etc.

b *Simple present tense*

every day (morning, afternoon, evening) every month.

every week (Monday, Tuesday, etc.) every year, frequently, generally, usually.

c *Simple past tense*

last month	last week (Monday, Tuesday, etc.)
last year	yesterday.

d *Simple future tense*

next month	next week (Monday, Tuesday, etc.)
next year	tomorrow

Difficulty

'Used to'. This structure, which is commonly used in English, causes confusion among Cantonese-speaking pupils because it performs two distinct functions. In Cantonese each function is dealt with in a separate way and there is no common structure covering both functions. In English 'used to' can be:

a to be used to (accustomed to)

b referring to past habit (and always followed by an infinitive)

English word order

He's *not used* to the weather.

She *used to* live in London.

Cantonese word order

He *not accustomed (to)* weather.

She *in the past* live in London.

A further common mistake made by pupils is to use 'used to' wrongly, as the present habitual tense.

"I used to go to school every day" when they mean to say "I go to school every day".

Like Cantonese, *Vietnamese* has a distinct method of expressing the two functions.

Teaching strategy
A helpful approach is to use appropriate time clauses in conjunction with the 'used to' clause:
He's only lived in London for three months and *he's not used to the weather*.
Before she went to Hong Kong, *she used to live in London*.

Main Problems
With the teaching of English tenses generally, the main problem areas for attention are:

The simple present contrasted with the present continuous.
The simple present contrasted with the simple past.
The simple past contrasted with the past continuous.
The simple past contrasted with the present perfect.
The simple past contrasted with the past perfect.
The conditional.

Vietnamese
Much of what is said here about Cantonese applies equally to Vietnamese. A difference is that time phrases *usually* come at the beginning of a sentence. Present continuous:
V'Nese word order
She *now (progressive marker)* buy book.

If there is no time phrase to indicate present, future, or past one uses makers for progressive action, future action, or past action, placed before the verb.

5 Vocabulary

5.1 Phrasal Verbs

The English practice of combining a verb with a preposition or adverbial particle is a completely new experience for Cantonese-speaking pupils. Cantonese does not use any such linguistic device in the formation of verbs. The rules governing the use of phrasal verbs, whether separable or non-separable, present problems to pupils, and they need to have a good grasp of this usage in order to achieve idiomatic English.

A brief selection of commonly used phrasal verbs, as extracted from 'Essential Idioms in English' by R J Dixson The Regents Publishing Co Inc.

back	out up
be	about to
blow	up
break	away down in off out through
bring	about back out
build	up
burn	down out
buy	out up
call	for off on
carry	out
catch	on up
cheer	up
clear	away up
come	about across from out
cut	in off out
die	away down out

drop	in out
fall	behind off through
fill	in out up
find	out
get	away back lost off through to up
give	away in off out up
go	around off on out over through with
hand	in out
hang	up
have	on
hear	from of
hold	off on over up
keep	off on out up
leaves	out
let	down on out up
lie	down over
look	after at for into up
make	up
mark	out
pick	up
put	away down off on out together
read	about over
run	across away into out over past
see	off
sell -	out
set	out
show	off
shut	off up
sit	down up
slow	down up
stand	for out up
stay	away in out up
stick	out to up
stir	up
take	after apart down off on
talk	around out over
tear	down off up
think	about of over up
throw	away off out up
try	out
turn	down off on over
wait	for on
wake	up
wear	off out

Vietnamese

The same difficulties obtain for *Vietnamese* speakers. In Vietnamese, the concepts are expressed by means of *verb series,* with the object often inserted between the verb:

take the suitcase this *away.*

Common Errors in Phonetics

Notes on this Section

The English vowels and diphthongs that cause particular problems to Cantonese speakers are introduced in pairs with a brief explanation of the phonetic errors involved.

Lists of minimal pairs and practice sentences highlight the two contrasting sounds, and can be used by teachers for drilling exercises or as basic material that they can adapt to their specific needs.

Similarly with the consonants, the type of error is outlined, and then contrasting drills are given as possible material for teachers to use.

1 Phonetic Symbols

The phonetic symbols used in this book represent the standard pronunciation of English common to the south of England, known as Received Pronunciation, RP.

These phonetic symbols are those used in the *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English* by A S Hornby (Third Edition, Eleventh Impression, revised and reset, 1980)

The phonetic symbols are always shown inside [ ] brackets.

		Phonetic symbol	*Key word*		*Phonetic symbol*	*Key word*
Vowels	1	[iː]	see	7	[ɔː]	saw
	2	[ɪ]	sit	8	[ʊ]	put
	3	[e]	ten	9	[uː]	too
	4	[æ]	hat	10	[ʌ]	cup
	5	[ɑː]	arm	11	[ɜː]	fur
	6	[ɒ]	got	12	[ə]	ago
Diphthongs	13	[eɪ]	page	17	[ɔɪ]	join
	14	[əʊ]	home	18	[ɪə]	near
	15	[aɪ]	five	19	[eə]	hair
	16	[aʊ]	now	20	[ʊə]	pure
Consonants	1	[p]	pen	13	[s]	so
	2	[b]	bad	14	[z]	zoo
	3	[t]	tea	15	[ʃ]	she
	4	[d]	did	16	[ʒ]	vision
	5	[k]	cat	17	[h]	how
	6	[g]	got	18	[m]	man
	7	[tʃ]	chin	19	[n]	no
	8	[dʒ]	June	20	[ŋ]	sing
	9	[f]	fall	21	[l]	leg
	10	[v]	voice	22	[r]	red
	11	[θ]	thin	23	[j]	yes
	12	[ð]	then	24	[w]	wet

Notes: There have been some changes to the phonetic symbols used in this Eleventh Impression 1980 of the *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English* by A S Hornby, as follows:

Vowels and Diphthongs	1	iː was previously represented by	i	15	aɪ	ɑɪ
	5	ɑː	ɑ	16	aʊ	ɑʊ
	6	ɒ	o			
	7	ɔː	ɔ			
	9	uː	u			
	11	ɜː	ɜ			

2 Vowels and Diphthongs

2.1 Vowels

1	[i:]	[ɪ]
2	[e]	[æ]
3	[ɒ]	[ɔ:]
4	[ʌ]	[ɑ:]
5	[u:]	[ʊ]

Vowel:

A voiced sound, that is continuous and unobstructed, made without audible stopping of the breath.

Vowels 1

[i:] [ɪ] The cheap bean is in the chip bin
[i:] [i:] [ɪ] [ɪ]

[i:] This sound does occur in Cantonese, but not as frequently as in English, nor in combination with such a variety of consonants.

[ɪ] This sound occurs in Cantonese, most commonly in the final combinations [ɪk] [ɪŋ] [ɪp]

eg sik – to eat.
sing – to be surnamed.

Type of error:

These two English vowel sounds cause difficulty because unlike the Cantonese sounds they are used in combination with many different consonants, in a variety of positions. This leads to the following errors:

a Complete transfer of the final Cantonese combination [ɪk] into English words, so that,

cheek → chick
leak → lick

b Substitution of [ɪ] for [e] where English has [ek] so that:

next → nixt
reckon → rickon
second → sicond
text → tixt

eg I want the sicond floor.
What is the nixt question?

Practice Drill: minimal pairs for [ɪ] *and* [e]

pip	pep
bin	Ben
sit	set
chick	check
pick	peck
six	sex

Practice Drill: minimal pairs for [p] *and* [k] *finals, as in Error a*

[p] *finals*		[k] *finals*	
cheap	chip	cheek	chick
deep	dip	leak	lick
sheep	ship	peak	pick
sleep	slip	seek	sick
weep	whip	teak	tick

Practice Drill: minimal pairs

[i:]	[ɪ]	[i:]	[ɪ]
bead	bid	heed	hid
bean	bin	keen	kin
beat	bit	keel	kill
deal	dill	leave	live
dean	din	meal	mill
deed	did	peal	pill
each	itch	peak	pit
ease	is	reach	rich
eat	it	read	rid
feast	fist	ream	rim
feel	fill	reap	rip
feet	fit	seat	sit
green	grin	seen	sin
heat	hit	seep	sip

Practice sentences:

1 Is it three threes?
[ɪ] [ɪ] [i:] [i:]
2 See if these fit you.
[i:] [i:] [ɪ]
3 Please eat this meat.
[i:] [i:] [ɪ] [i:]
4 Will his sister feel sleepy?
[ɪ] [ɪ] [ɪ] [i:] [i:]
5 Don't sit on the seat in the heat.
[ɪ] [i:] [ɪ] [i:]

Some English spelling variations that cause further confusion:

[i:] bean c*e*iling green key pi*e*ce police th*e*se
[ɪ] b*u*siness b*u*sy city din *E*nglish fill live pr*e*tty w*o*men

Vowels 2

[e] [æ] Lend him some sand.
[e] [æ]

There is a close approximation to the [æ] sound, in Cantonese, and the pupils tend to use this sound for both the [e] and [æ] vowel sounds in English. Mistakes occur when there is no clear distinction in the phonetic sounds substituted for [e] and [æ]

eg Where is the *men*?
He wants to go to *bad*.

Practice Drill: minimal pairs

[e]	[æ]	[e]	[æ]
bed	bad	men	man
beg	bag	merry	marry
bend	band	mess	mass
bet	bat	met	mat
dead	dad	neck	knack
fed	fad	pedal	paddle
fen	fan	pen	pan
guess	gas	said	sad

head	had	send	sand
kettle	cattle	set	sat
led	lad	sex	sacks
lend	land	ten	tan

Practice Sentences: minimal contrast

1 It is said that he is ill.
It is sad that he is ill.
2 She is looking for her pen.
She is looking for her pan.
3 Beware of this bend.
Beware of this band.

Practice Sentences:

1 Many cats sat on the mat.
[e] [æ] [æ] [æ]
2 Dad had wet hands.
[æ] [æ] [e] [æ]
3 Lend me a bag for my pens.
[e] [æ] [e]
4 The men have ten red maps and seven sacks.
[e] [e] [e] [æ] [e] [æ]
5 The fat man said the cat is dead.
[æ] [æ] [e] [æ] [e]

Some English spelling variations that cause further confusion:

[e] | bed dead friend guess leisure many says said
[æ] | bad dad marry plait

Vowels 3

[ɒ] [ɔ:] The doctor's daughter likes hot dogs and port.
[ɒ] [ɔ:] [ɒ] [ɒ] [ɔ:]

[ɒ] Cantonese has an approximate equivalent to this vowel sound, and the usual error is for pupils to substitute this Cantonese equivalent sound for the English [ɒ] .

[ɔ:] This sound does not occur in Cantonese and is often wrongly replaced by the Cantonese [ɒ] . Cantonese speakers do not distinguish between these two sounds and tend to use the Cantonese equivalent for [ɒ] for both of these sounds. Where there is no clear distinction between these two sounds, mistakes occur, such as:

eg The teacher is tocking (talking).
He likes spots (sports).

Practice Drill: minimal pairs

[ɒ]	[ɔ:]	[ɒ]	[ɔ:]
cod	cord	pot	port
don	dawn	shot	short
hod	hoard	sot	sort
knotty	naughty	spot	sport
lot	lord	stock	stalk
not	nought	tot	taught
pock	pork	tock	talk

Practice Sentences:

1 He's got four tall daughters.
[ɒ] [ɔː] [ɔː] [ɔː]
2 John has not got any sausage and pork.
[ɒ] [ɒ] [ɒ] [ɒ] [ɔː]
3 She bought an awful orange watch.
[ɔː] [ɔː] [ɒ] [ɒ]
4 The water in the pot is not all hot.
[ɔː] [ɒ] [ɒ][ɔː] [ɒ]
5 Tom talks of sport a lot.
[ɒ] [ɔː] [ɔː] [ɒ]

Some English spelling variations that cause further confusion:

[ɒ] be*cau*se c*au*liflower cough cross knowledge lot off want what
[ɔː] all *au*thor bought caught c*ou*rse more oar saw sort

Vowels 4

[ʌ] [ɑː] Father and Mother love the ducks in the park.
[ɑː] [ʌ] [ʌ] [ʌ] [ɑː]

Both of these English vowel sounds are sometimes wrongly replaced by the nearest Cantonese equivalent sound to [ɑː] and careful drilling is required to show the clear difference between them.

Practice Drill: minimal pairs

[ʌ]	[ɑː]	[ʌ]	[ɑː]
buck	bark	hum	harm
bud	bard	hut	heart
bus	bars	luck	lark
cud	card	puck	park
cut	cart	putt	part
done	darn	stuck	stark
duck	dark	tut	tart

Practice sentences:

1 Mother had a lovely card.
[ʌ] [ʌ] [ɑː]
2 Uncle Charles is coming by car.
[ʌ] [ɑː] [ʌ] [ɑː]
3 Father's brother had a large party.
[ɑː] [ʌ] [ɑː] [ɑː]
4 Her son works rather hard.
[ʌ] [ɑː] [ɑː]
5 Mother's aunt loves laughing.
[ʌ] [ɑː] [ʌ] [ɑː]

Some English spelling variations that cause further confusion:

[ʌ] blood but come c*ou*ntry done monkey month touch
[ɑː] aunt car f*a*ther guard half heart last laugh

Vowels 5

[u:] [ʊ] A cool cook took the good food.
[u:] [ʊ] [ʊ] [ʊ] [u:]

[u:] This sound does occur in Cantonese and does not present any particular difficulty.
[ʊ] This sound is seldom used in Cantonese.

The usual mistake is caused by difficulties in reproducing the [ʊ] vowel sound, and the substition of the [u:] sound in place of it.

Practice Drill: minimal pairs

[u:]	[ʊ]
cooed	could
fool	full
Luke	look
pool	pull
shooed	should
suit	soot
wooed	would

Practice Sentences:

1 The blue book is good.
[u:] [ʊ] [ʊ]
2 Wool is not cool.
[ʊ] [u:]
3 June is the new cook.
[u:] [u:] [ʊ]
4 Who put the fruit in the pool?
[u:] [ʊ] [u:] [u:]
5 Sue was foolish to choose those shoes.
[u:] [illegible] [u:] [u:]

The 'oo' spelling and its varied pronunciation

The table following is a beautiful illustration of some of the inconsistencies in the spelling and pronunciation of English, and may reinforce our sympathy for immigrant pupils having to grapple with them.

–ood	[illegible]	–oof	–ook	–ool	-ool	-oom	-oon	-oot	-oot
[ʊd]	[illegible]	[u:f]	[ʊk]	[ʊl]	[u:l]	[u:m]	[u:n]	[ʊt]	[u:t]
good	food	roof	book	wool	cool	bloom	moon	foot	boot
hood	mood		brook		fool	broom	soon	soot	loot
stood			cook		pool	doom	spoon		root
			hook		school	gloom			shoot
wood			shook		tool	groom			
			took			room			

Some English spelling variationss that cause further confusion:

[u:] beauty blue do lose music new rule shoe soup to use who

[ʊ] cushion could foot full good look put wolf woman wool

2.2 Vowels and Diphthongs

1 [eɪ] [e]
2 [eɪ] [ɪ]

Diphthong: A speech sound made when two vowels are combined together into a single syllable, within one breath.

Vowels and Diphthongs 1

[eɪ] [e] The faded shade is in the red shed.
[eɪ] [eɪ] [e] [e]

[eɪ] This diphthong occurs quite often in Cantonese in commonly used words such as:

nei – you gei – rather

So that when the English [eɪ] diphthong occurs in an open final position, it presents no difficulty to Cantonese speakers in English words like:

day lay may okay say

But the [eɪ] diphthong followed by a consonant is an unfamiliar combination for Cantonese speakers and there is a tendency to replace the [eɪ] sound by [e]. This is especially noticeable when the consonant following is an 'l' or 'n'.

Type of error:

[eɪ] is replaced by [e] so that:

make [meɪk] → [mek]

eight [eɪt] → [et]

With 'l' or 'n' as the final consonant:

bail → bell
fail → fell
pain → pen
rain → wren

Practice Drill: minimal pairs

[eɪ]	[e]
bait	bet
fade	fed
gate	get
late	let
mate	met
pain	pen
raid	red
shade	shed

Practice drill on [eɪ] followed by 'l' or 'n'

[eɪ] + 'l' : bail dale fail gale hail mail nail
pale rail sail sale tail vale whale

[eɪ] + 'n' : cane gain Jane main pain rain vain

Practice sentences:

1 Let me get the paint.
[e] [e] [eɪ]

2 He's late, it's half past eight.
[eɪ] [eɪ]

3 They met Jane and stayed to play.
[eɪ] [e] [eɪ] [eɪ] [eɪ]

4 It's wet, but we'll wait.
[e], [eɪ]
5 They want the red shed today, okay.
[eɪ] [e] [e] [eɪ] [eɪ]

Some English spelling variations that cause further confusion:
[eɪ] bass break day eight gaol great make same
vein wait weight
[e] bed dead friend guess leisure many says said

Vowels and Diphthongs 2

[eɪ] [ɪ] Break the cake or kick the brick?
[eɪ] [eɪ] [ɪ] [ɪ]

Confusion occurs between the [eɪ] diphthong and the [ɪ] vowel sound, especially when they are followed by the [k] consonant.

Practice Drill: minimal pairs

[eɪ]	[ɪ]
break	brick
cake	kick
lake	lick
make	Mick
quake	quick
rake	rick
sake	sick
take	tick
wake	wick

Practice sentences:
1 Dick breaks the brick.
[ɪ] [eɪ] [ɪ]
2 Jake fakes the trick.
[eɪ] [eɪ] [ɪ]
3 Vic makes cakes by the lake.
[ɪ] [eɪ] [eɪ] [eɪ]
4 Be quick, there's an earth-quake.
[ɪ] [eɪ]
5 Please wake Mick, he's sick.
[eɪ] [ɪ] [ɪ]

Some English spelling variations that cause further confusion:
[eɪ] bass break day eight gaol great l*a*te
m*a*ke s*a*me vein wait weight
[ɪ] b*u*siness busy c*i*ty din *E*nglish
fill l*i*ve pr*e*tty w*o*men

3 Consonants
1 Release of fi[illegible]nsonants
2 [p,t,k] and [b,[illegible]]
3 [θ] [ð]
4 [s] [z]
5 [s] [ʃ]
6 [v] [w] [f]

7 [tʃ] [dʒ]
8 [l] [r]
9 [l] [n]

Consonant: A speech sound produced by a complete or partial stoppage of the breath.

Consonants 1

Release of Final Consonants in English:

Final consonants cause considerable difficulties for Cantonese speaking pupils, especially the plosive consonants [p,b,t,d,k,g] and the affricate consonants [tʃ,dʒ].

This is because in Cantonese, final consonants are much less common than in English. There are only three final plosive consonants [m,n,ŋ] and these leave the mouth in its closed position. When pupils try to produce fully exploded final consonants, they tend to add the sound [ə] after the final consonant, thus making an additional syllable.

eg	cap	[kaep]	→	cap-a	[kaepə]
	mat	[maet]	→	mat-a	[maetə]
	duck	[dʌk]	→	duck-a	[dʌkə]

A similar error occurs when the plosive is preceded by *s* in an initial position, and the pupils insert the vowel sound [i:] between the *s* and the plosive consonant.

eg	spoon	[spu:n]	→	s-i-poon	[si:pu:n]
	street	[stri:t]	→	s-i-treet	[si:tri:t]
	sky	[skaɪ]	→	s-i-ky	[si:kaɪ]

Practice drill on the final plosive consonants:

[p]	[b]	[t]	[d]	[k]	[g]
cape	crab	bite	code	back	bag
map	job	coat	food	block	beg
stop	rub	hit	read	crack	dog
strap	stab	met	road	look	dig
tip	tube	seat	wide	neck	egg

Other final consonants affected:

[tʃ]	[dʒ]	[ŋ]	[ŋk]
catch	age	long	bank
church	bridge	lung	ink
each	judge	song	sunk
itch	page	thing	tank
much	sage	wrong	wink

Consonants 2

Voiceless		*Voiced*
[p]	voiced	[b]
[t]	voiced	[d]
[k]	voiced	[g]

There are no [b] [d] or [g] consonant sounds in Cantonese, so the Chinese pupils have to learn to reproduce these consonant sounds by voicing [p] [t] and [k] The common error is to use [p] [t] and [k] as substitutes for [b] [d] and [g].

Practice Drills:

Initials		Finals	
[p]	[b]	[p]	[b]
pan	ban	cap	cab
pin	bin	cop	cob
plead	bleed	cup	cub
pea	bee	rope	robe
pray	bray	tap	tab
[t]	[d]	[t]	[d]
tab	dab	bat	bad
time	dime	beat	bead
to	do	mat	mad
try	dry	set	said
tum	dumb	sort	sword
[k]	[g]	[k]	[g]
card	guard	back	bag
cold	gold	lock	log
cot	got	pick	pig
could	good	rick	rig
Kay	gay	tack	tag

Consonants 3

[θ] [ð]

[θ] *(is the voiceless 'th' sound)*

eg thick thin thing three throw

[ð] *(is the voiced 'th' sound)*

eg father mother the they this

Cantonese does not contain either of these sounds and they present quite a pronunciation problem to the pupils.

One illustration is when [ð] occurs in an unstressed initial position in frequently used words like 'the', 'that', 'they', 'them', 'this' etc. It is very difficult for the pupils to distinguish the correct sound and reproduce it accurately, and they may also feel that as it is unstressed it is not important and an approximate sound will do.

Pupils need careful coaching with these two sounds to help them avoid the usual errors.

Type of error:

a *Replacing* [θ] *by* [t] *or* [f]

eg thing → 'ting' or 'fing'

three → tree or free

b *Replacing* [ð] *by* [d] *or* [v]

eg	father	→	'fader'	bathe	→	'bave'
	the	→	'de'	clothes	→	'cloves'
	that	→	'dat'	teethe	→	'teeve'
	them	→	'dem'	with	→	'wiv'
	this	→	'dis'			

Practice drill for [θ]

[θ]	[t]	[θ]	[f]
thicket	ticket	loth	loaf
thick	tick	thin	fin

thin	tin	thing	finger
three	tree	thirst	first
through	true	three	free

Practice drill for [ð] *and* [d]

[ð]	[d]
there	dare
they	day
then	den
those	doze
though	dough

Consonants 4

[s] [z] There is no [z] sound in Cantonese and the usual error is to substitute [s] for [z] .

Practice drill:

	[s]	[z]
Finals	advice	advise
	caps	cabs
	hearse	hers
	hiss	his
	race	raise
	rice	rise
	rips	ribs
Initials	seal	zeal
	sip	zip

Consonants 5

[s] [ʃ] The [ʃ] sound does not occur in Cantonese, and it is usually wrongly replaced by [s] .

Practice drill: minimal pairs

[s]	[ʃ]
said	shed
same	shame
seat	sheet
see	she
sell	shell
sign	shine
so	show
sore	shore, sure
sue	shoe
suit	shoot

Difficult compound words: sea-shore, shop-signs, sun-shine

Practice sentences: minimal contrast

1 Those seats are wet.
Those sheets are wet.
2 I hope they will suit you.
I hope they will shoot you.

Consonants 6

[v] [w] [f] Cantonese does not have the voiced fricative [v], and the usual error is to replace it with [w] or [f].

Type of error:

a When [v] is initial or medial, it is replaced by [w]:

eg	invite	→	'inwite'
	value	→	'walue'
	visit	→	'wisit'

b When [v] is final, it is replaced by [f]:

eg	gave	→	'gafe'
	give	→	'gif'
	live	→	'lif'

Practice Drill: minimal pairs

Initial		Final	
[v]	[w]	[v]	[f]
vane	wane	believe	belief
vine	wine	leave	leaf
verse	worse	save	safe
vest	west	shelve	shelf
vet	wet	wave	waif

Consonants 7

[tʃ] [dʒ] Cantonese has the [tʃ] sound, but not the [dʒ] sound which is the voiced form of it.

Type of error: minimal pairs

The usual error is to replace [dʒ] by [tʃ], so that,
badge → batch, ridge → rich, judge → 'jutch'

Practice Drill:

	[tʃ]	[dʒ]
Initials	chain	Jane
	cheer	jeer
	chest	jest
	chin	gin
	choke	joke
	chump	jump
Finals	match	Madge
	Mitch	midge

Consonants 8

[l] [r] These two consonants are traditionally confused by speakers of Cantonese, and certain other southern Chinese dialects, although northern Chinese do not have the same problem.

Mother-tongue interference

There is no [r] sound in Cantonese.
The [l] sound occurs only in an initial position.
There are no initial or final consonant clusters in Cantonese, except for [gw] and [kw].

Type of error:

a The initial [r] may be replaced by [l]
eg rice → lice
room → loom
b The final [l] may be replaced by [r]
eg all → or
bill → beer
c In consonant clusters
eg English → 'Engrish'
play → pray
brand → bland
fried → 'flied'

Practice Drill for the initial [r] *sound: minimal pairs*

raid	laid	ride	lied
reek	leek	road	load
rhyme	lime	room	loom
rice	lice	rook	look
rick	lick	root	loot

for the final [l] *sound:*

all
call
fall
fill
ill

for consonant clusters: minimal pairs

blue	brew	flight	fright
climb	crime	fly	fry
clue	crew	gloom	groom
clutch	crutch	glow	grow
flee	free		

Consonants 9

[l] [n] These two English consonant sounds are produced phonetically in a somewhat similar manner, and this can lead to confusion and incorrect substitution by Cantonese speaking pupils.

Mother-tongue interference

Both sounds occur in standard Cantonese, but some speakers recognise only the [l], substituting it for [n] in all cases. The main area of confusion in English is when the [l] or [n] are in an initial position.

Practice Drill: minimal pairs

lag	nag	knee	lee
lame	name	need	lead
lap	nap	nice	lice
lease	niece	nook	look
line	nine	noose	loose

Vietnamese Phonetics

As has already been mentioned, Vietnamese has a remarkably complex phonology. Regional dialect variations are likely to be encountered among the refugee community.

For an introduction to the complexities of the system, teachers are

referred to: Thompson, *op cit* Chapters 1, 2, 3, 4:
Vietnamese-English Dictionary, 4th printing: Guide to Pronunciation
Nguyen Dinh Hoa (Tuttle, Vermount, 1967) pp. IX-XIV.

A problem additional to those presented by the variance of similar sounds between English and Cantonese/Vietnamese is that Vietnamese is nowadays written in a romanised script. Thus certain letters will have a value peculiar to Vietnamese and one that is unlikely to be expected from its English pronounciation, and this difference may also vary from dialect to dialect,

eg English *tree* – NVNese: like English '*ch*air'
SVNese: '*tr*air'

although the English sound *tree* presents no difficulty to the ordinary Vietnamese speaker.

List of Useful Reference Books

Grammar and Structure

A Communicative Grammar of English
G Leech & J Svartik (Longman, 1975)
A Practical English Grammar, 3rd Edition
A J Thomson & A V Martinet (Oxford University Press, 1980)
A University Grammar of English
R Quirk & S Greenbaum (Longman, 1973)
Guide to Patterns and Usage in English, 2nd Edition
A S Hornby (Oxford University Press, 1975)
The Structure of English: An Introduction to the Construction of English Sentences
C C Fries (Harcourt, Brace & World, 1952)
The Teaching of Structural Words and Sentence Patterns
A S Hornby Stages 1 & 2 - Stages 3 & 4 (Oxford University Press, 1973)

Phonetics

An Introduction to the Pronunciation of English, 2nd Edition
A G Gimson (Edward Arnold, 1970)
Better English Pronunciation
J D O'Connor (Cambridge University Press, 1967)
English Pronunciation Explained with Diagrams
R Huang (Hong Kong University Press, 1971)
English Speech Training in 45 Illustrated Lessons
R Huang (Hong Kong University Press, 1973)
Intonation in Idiomatic English, Books I & II
R Huang & A W T Green (Hong Kong University Press, 1964)
Ship or Sheep: Introducing English Pronunciation
A Baker (Cambridge University Press, 1977)
Spoken English the Bilingual Way: A Practice Book for Cantonese Students
R Huang (Macmillan, Hong Kong, 1973)

Dictionaries

Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English, 3rd Edition
A S Hornby (Oxford University Press, 1980, 11th Impression revised and reset)

English Pronouncing Dictionary, 13th Edition
Dr Jones (English Language Book Society & J M Dent, 1967)
Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English
(Longman, 1978)

Journals

The English Bulletin
Published by the Curriculum Development Editorial Board, Education Department, Hysan Avenue, Hong Kong
RELC Journal
Published by the SEAMEO Language Centre, 30 Orange Grove Road, Singapore 10.

Some Textbooks Used in Hong Kong Schools

Primary School

English in Action A Primary Course for Hong Kong
K Methold (Longmans, Far East)
Longman Primary English for Hong Kong
J G Heaton & J Hobbs (Longmans, Far East)

Secondary School

Access (Active Course in Certificate English for Secondary Schools)
D H Howe (Oxford University Press, Hong Kong)
Integrated English Course
K Methold & J Tadman (Longmans, Far East)
Modern English for Chinese Students Course
A R B Etherton (Longmans, Far East)

Appendix I

Suggested Language Structure Syllabus Primary 1–6 (extracted from Hong Kong Government Education Department Publications).

The following, 'Suggested Language Structure Syllabus, Primary 1 – 6', has been extracted from *English (Primary 1 – 6), Syllabuses for Primary Schools*, published by the Curriculum Development Committee, Education Department of the Hong Kong Government in 1976.

Appendix 1 is a structure syllabus for Primary 1 to 6 in Hong Kong. It serves as a rapid reminder for teachers in Hong Kong of the essential structures and structural words which are generally included in the EFL course books used in Hong Kong. Since these structures and structural words are presented through everyday situations in the graded course books, they are not graded in this brief syllabus, nor are they related to topics and situations. The syllabus has been included as an appendix because it is felt that it may be useful to give some indication to the teachers of Chinese pupils here of what the latter have been taught in Hong Kong. Teachers, however, may wish to bear in mind that the teaching and learning situations in Hong Kong are different from those in the United Kingdom where English is taught by native speakers, and the social language is English.

In Hong Kong most teachers of English are not native speakers and the social language of the majority is Cantonese. Consequently pupils from Hong Kong may be more proficient in reading and writing than in listening and speaking.

IV. SUGGESTED LANGUAGE STRUCTURE SYLLABUS, PRIMARY 1–6

1. The following is a suggested list of sentence patterns and the more important structural words for teaching the primary classes. It is intended as a guide to the more important structural features of English to which systematic attention should be paid. The order given is not necessarily the order in which the items are to be taught, nor is the list meant to be exclusive. It is assumed that use will be made of a comprehensive course written for primary school pupils learning English as a second language in Hong Kong. Such a course will include many less important items not listed here and will make use of vocabulary appropriate to each stage. Teachers may wish to exercise some discretion as to when and whether an item should be taught, depending on the standard of their pupils, but by the end of the primary course all pupils should be able to use the structures listed in speech and writing with accuracy and some degree of fluency.

2. It is important that the items should be taught through situations rather than in their grammatical form and teachers should feel free to combine the items to form bigger units or situational groups to suit the needs of both the teachers and the pupils. Items may be used in combination with other items previously taught. In Primary 2, for example, Nos. 16 and 22 may be combined to produce: 'Where is Mr. Chan's hat?' Item 28 (end position adverbials) makes use of the present continuous tense but these adverbials will later be used with other tenses as they are taught. In the same way the inclusion of short replies in Primary 2 (Items 9 and 32) implies that these will be practised with other tenses later.

3. Unless otherwise indicated it is assumed that when a statement pattern is taught, the negative and interrogative forms will also be practised.

4. There should be constant revision of items already taught and in particular each year should begin with a complete revision of previous work.

STRUCTURE LIST

PRIMARY ONE AND TWO

	Items	Examples
*1	Indefinite articles with countable nouns	a book, an egg.
*2	'It' with verb to be	It is a book. It is an egg.
*3	'I', 'you', 'he', 'she', 'it' with verb *to be* and noun or name of person	I am Siu Ming. He is a man. It is a cup.
*4	'This' with verb *to be*	This is a pen. This is Mr. Tong.
*5	Conjunction 'and'	This is a pen and this is a pencil.
*6	Possessive adjectives: 'my', 'your', 'his', 'her' with verb *to be* and countable nouns	This is my head. This is his hat. My name is . . .
*7	Question with 'what' and verb *to be*	What is it? What is your name?
*8	Questions with inversion of verb *to be*	Is it a chair? Is he Mr. Chan?
*9	Short replies to 'yes/no' questions	Yes, it is. No, he isn't.
*10	Negative statements	It is not a bottle.
*11	Contrasting negative and affirmative statements	It is not a pen. It is a pencil.
*12	Predicative adjectives	His hat is black.
*13	Simple imperatives	(Please) open the window. Shut the door (please).
*14	Present continuous tense	He is running.
*15	Present continuous tense: questions with inversion	Is he smiling?
16	The possessive: 's'	Mr. Chan's hat.
17	The definite articles	The book is red.
18	Preposition phrases of place after *to be*	The book is in the box.
19	'of the' with countable nouns	The top of the box. The name of my school.
20	Plurals in 's' and 'es' (S) (Z) (iZ)	hats, nibs, boxes
21	Introductory 'there' with verb *to be* singular and plural. (negative and interrogative forms in the singular only)	There is a book on the table. There are two pens in the desk. Is there a ruler on the desk? There isn't a ruler on the desk.
22	Questions with 'where'	Where am I? Where are the cups?
23	Questions with 'how many'	How many glasses are there on the table?
24	'These'	These are buttons.
25	Personal pronouns, plural forms: 'we', 'you', 'they'	We are boys. We are standing up. They are girls. They are sitting down.
26	Present continuous tense; questions with 'what'	What is he doing?
27	Direct object	He is kicking a ball.
28	End position adverbials	Put the box there. She is sitting on a chair. He is walking to the door.
29	Direct object and adverbial	She is putting the book in the cupboard.
30	'Have' and 'has': possession	I have an orange. He has two books.
31	Questions with 'who'	Who is in the car? Who has a red hat?
32	Short replies to questions other than 'yes/no' questions	Who is kicking the ball? He is. Who has a red hat? He has.
33	'What' with a noun	What colour is the pencil?
34	Uncountable nouns	I am drinking water.

* Suggested items for P. 1

PRIMARY THREE

	Items	Examples
1	'of' with uncountable nouns	A glass of water. A piece of paper.
2	'can'	Can he sing? Yes, he can.
3	'like'	They like animals.
4	'But'	He is tall but she is short.

	Items	Examples
5	'That' 'those'	This is a pen and that is a pencil. What are those ?
6	Alternative questions with 'or'	Is that a chair or a table ?
7	Negative imperatives	(Please) don't stand up.
8	Personal pronouns, object forms, singular and plural: 'me', 'you', 'him', 'her', 'it', 'us', 'them'	He is helping them. She is teaching us.
9	'Too'	He is running and I am running too.
10	Pronoun 'one'	She has a pen and I have one too.
11	Attributive adjectives	The yellow book is in the big box.
12	Possessive adjectives: 'its' and plural forms: 'our', 'your', 'their'	That is its tail. She is their mother.
13	Indefinite determinatives with countable nouns: 'some', 'any', 'no', 'many'	She has some flowers. He hasn't many bottles.
14	Indefinite determinatives with uncountable nouns: 'some', 'any', 'no', 'much'	He has no paper. She hasn't much ink.
15	Introductory 'there': negative and interrogative	Are there any pens on the desk ? There aren't any pencils in the box.
16	Preposition phrases without articles	He is going to bed, to school.
17	'May': permission	May I go outside please ?
18	The indefinite article with occupations	Mr. Tan is a teacher.
19	Comparison of adjectives	This pencil is longer than that one. This flower is more beautiful than that flower.
20	Introductory 'here'	Here is a book. Here are some pieces of paper.
21	Indefinite pronouns: 'someone', 'something', 'anyone', 'anything', 'no one', 'nothing', etc.	I can see someone. Can you hear anything ?
22	'What time . . . ?'	What time is it ? What is the time ? It is five o'clock.
23	Simple past tense of verb *to be*	That was wrong.
24	Simple past tense of verb *to have*: possession	He had a big apple.
25	'Very' as a modifier	It is very big. I like oranges very much.

PRIMARY FOUR

	Items	Examples
1	Possessive pronouns, singular and plural: 'mine', 'yours', 'his', 'hers', 'ours', 'theirs'	Mine is bigger than yours.
2	'Have' as in 'have a rest', 'have a meal' etc.	I have breakfast at eight o'clock.
3	Simple past tense, regular and some irregular verbs	He kicked the ball. She carried the bag. He sat on the chair. Did he see the picture ?
4	Simple present tense	He wants an apple. Do you live in Hong Kong ? Does he like oranges ? He does not go to school every day.
5	The future with 'going to'	She is going to put the book in the cupboard.
6	Indirect object	He gave me a pencil. I asked her a question.
7	End-position adverbials: manner	He hit the ball hard.
	: time	The holidays began yesterday.
	: frequency	He comes here every day.
8	Mid-position adverbials: 'sometimes', 'always', 'often', 'never', etc.	He always listens to the teacher. She never comes to school.
9	Questions with 'which', 'where', when', 'what', 'whose' and all tenses taught so far	Which is bigger, this one or that one ? Where does he live ? When did he go ? What do you want ? Whose is this ? Whose hat is this ?
10	Interrogatives and end prepositions	What are you looking for ?
11	Preposition phrases qualifying nouns	The boys in the class stood up.
12	Impersonal 'it'	It's raining. It's summer.
13	Requests	Will you help me, please ? Will you please close the door ?
14	Simple future with 'will' and 'shall'	I shall tell him tomorrow.
15	Infinitive of purpose	She went to buy some food.
16	Nouns followed by infinitives of purpose	Things to eat, books to read, a dollar to spend.
17	'For' with a (pro) noun and infinitive of purpose	Here is a book for you to read.
18	Other verbs with infinitives	She tried to help us. He wants to go there.
19	Verb with indirect object and infinitive	She helped me to do it. I told him (not) to stop.
20	Superlative forms of adjectives	Which is the prettiest ? This is the most interesting one.
21	Questions with 'how much', 'how old', 'how often', etc.	How much is that mango ? How old are you ? How often do you have English ?
22	'More' and 'fewer' with countable nouns	He has more/fewer dollars than I have.
23	'More' and 'less' with uncountable nouns	He has more/less rice than we have.
24	Comparison of adverbs	He ran faster than his brother. He works more carefully than she does.
25	'. . . (not) as . . . as' (adjectives and pronouns)	He is (not) as tall as his sister. He did (not) see as many places as they did.
26	'. . . (not) as . . . as' (adverbs)	He did (not) run as fast as I did.

PRIMARY FIVE

	Items	Examples
1	Adverbials after *to be*	He is in a hurry. The lesson is over. The boat is for hire.
2	'Let' and 'make' with 'bare' infinitive.	They let me watch. He made me go home.
3	'Special' verbs with 'bare' infinitives: 'must', 'could', 'would'	They must (not) do it. He would/could (not) tell me.

	Items	Examples
4	Verbs other than *to be* with predicative adjectives	He felt hot. She looked unhappy.
5	Suggestions	Let's tell him.
6	Present perfect tense	I have closed the door.
7	Present perfect tense with mid-position adverbials: 'already', 'just', 'never', 'often', 'almost' etc.	The bus has already stopped. I have never seen a snake.
8	Present participle qualifying a noun	We heard the children playing.
9	Present participle phrase qualifying a noun	We watched them playing football. I heard them shouting in the street.
10	Verb and preposition patterns	He picked up the glass of water. He picked it up. He asked for a book. He asked her for a book.
11	Gerund as subject	Swimming is pleasant.
12	Gerund as object	He likes swimming.
13	Gerund with object	I like eating sweets.
14	Question tags with 'ordinary' verbs	You want it, don't you? He didn't do it, did he?
15	Question tags with 'special' verbs	It's wrong, isn't it? You can't see it, can you?
16	Questions with 'why'	Why is he eating sweets?
17	Adverb clauses with 'because'	He is eating sweets because he likes them.
18	Adverb clauses with 'when'	When she wakes up, she gets out of bed.
19	Adverb clauses with 'if' (present/future sentence)	If it rains, we shall stay indoors. If you find it, she will be pleased.
20	Adjective clauses with 'that/which'	This is the book (that/which) you wanted.
21	Adjective clauses with 'who'	There is the boy who told me.
22	Past continuous tense	It was raining when I set out this morning.
23	Indefinite determinatives with countable nouns: 'both', 'a few', 'several' 'all (the)', 'a lot of' 'lots of', 'a great many', 'a large/small number of', 'plenty of', 'another', 'each', 'every'	There were plenty of chairs.
24	Indefinite determinatives with uncountable nouns: 'a little', 'all (the)', 'a lot of', 'lots of', 'a great deal of', 'a large/small amount of', 'plenty of'	There was plenty of water.
25	Questions with 'how'	How do you come to school?
26	Suggestions with 'shall'	Shall we do it now?
27	'May': possibility	It may rain tomorrow.

PRIMARY SIX

	Items	Examples
1	Comparisons with 'like'	She swims like a fish.
2	Comparisons with 'the same as' and 'different from'	Yours is the same as mine. This one is different from that one.
3	'Since' and 'ago'	I have lived here since 1965. He came here two years ago.
4	'Have': obligation	I have to get up at seven o'clock. We had to go to school yesterday. I shall have to do it tomorrow.
5	'Enough', 'too'	There is enough/too much water in the glass.
6	'Too . . . (for (pro) noun) to . . .'	The box is too big to go through the door. There are too many for us to carry.
7	'Enough . . . to'	He is strong enough to lift that box.
8	'What', 'when', 'where', 'how', 'who', 'which', etc. with infinitives.	I don't know what to do. Tell me when to go. He taught me how to swim. He asked me where to put the picture. Don't you know which to buy? I don't know who to ask.
9	Noun clauses with 'that' after 'think', 'knew', 'said', etc	I think (that) it is raining.
10	Noun clauses with 'what'	Tell me what you want. This is what I want.
11	Noun clauses with 'how'	I asked him how he did it.
12	Noun clauses with 'when'	She wants to know when we are leaving.
13	Noun clauses with 'where'	She told us where it was.
14	Noun clauses with 'why'	We don't know why he did it.
15	Noun clauses with 'which'	Ask him which (one) he wants.
16	Noun clauses with 'who'	I wonder who he is.
17	Indirect questions with 'whether/if'	He asked her whether/if she knew the answer.
18	Adverb clauses with 'before' and 'after'	They built these flats before/after I came here.
19	Adverb clauses with 'until'	I waited until they came.
20	'Should'	You should be more careful.
21	Adjectives with infinitives	I am afraid to tell him. I am glad to see you.
22	Adverb clauses with 'before', 'after', 'when' and 'until' using present tenses for the future.	We will start when you are ready. I shall wait here until he has finished.
23	Adverb clauses with 'since' (*time* not *reason*)	I have not seen him since he went away.
24	Adjectives followed by infinitives	It is easy (for you) to say that.
25	Adjectives followed by noun clauses	I am sorry that you are leaving. I am sure that you are right.
26	'Less' with adjectives	This book is less interesting than that one.
27	'Either . . . or . . .'	He wants either this one or that one.
28	Reflexive pronouns	She has hurt herself.

Appendix II

Guide to Language Structure and List of Verb Patterns for Secondary Level Pupils, (extracted from Hong Kong Government Education Department Publications).

The following 'Guide to Language Structure' and 'Lists of Verb Patterns' have been produced by the Education Department of Hong Kong, as part of the recommended syllabus for English Language teaching in Hong Kong secondary schools and have been extracted from *Provisional Syllabus for English* (Forms I—V), published by the Curriculum Development Committee, Education Department of the Hong Kong Government, in 1975.

The Guide and Lists are not meant to be exclusive, but are intended to help teachers by giving a guideline of the most important structural features of English to which systematic attention should be paid.

GUIDE TO LANGUAGE STRUCTURE*

SECTION I

N.B. THE USE OF GRAMMATICAL TERMS IS FOR THE TEACHER'S REFERENCE ONLY. THEY SHOULD NOT BE TAUGHT TO THE PUPILS.

Items which the pupils are expected to know mainly *for recognition purposes* are marked (R), and a simpler and equally acceptable structure is provided *for active use* where appropriate. Emphasis should be laid on the use of the simpler structures for speaking and writing in the first three years of the secondary course.

	Items	Examples
1.	*This is* . . . *That is* . . . (*That's* . . .)	This is Peter. That is Mr. Lee.
2.	*a, an*	This is a pen. That is a pen too. This is an apple.
3.	*My, your*	This is my head. That is your ruler. This is your book. That is my book.
4.	These are . . . Those are . . . (Revise the sounds of plural endings: /s/, /z/, and /iz)	These are ships/chairs/boxes. These are my eyes. Those are your hands.
5.	*It is* . . . *It's* . . .	This is a handkerchief. It's my handkerchief.
6.	*What is* . . . *That's* . . . What are . . .	What's *this/that?* It's a watch. What are these? They are trees.
7.	*"Yes/No"* questions	Is this a horse? Is that a window? Are these cows? Are those horses?
8.	Short answers	Yes, it is. No, it isn't. Yes, they are. No, they aren't. *NOTE:* Aren't they ready? No, they aren't. *Not:* Yes, they aren't.
9.	Questions with *or*	Is this a pen or a pencil? It's a pen. Are these men or women? They're men.
10.	*John's, his, her*	It's John's nose. Is it her nose or his nose?
11.	*He, she, you, I,* with *to be,* affirmative and interrogative.	He is a tall boy. Is she a tall girl? You are a pupil. Am I a teacher?
12.	The definite article	This is the floor. That's the sun. I'm the teacher.
13.	Demonstrative adjective: *this, that, these, those*	This boy's name is Peter.
14.	Adverb phrases of place	This book is on the floor. Those boys are near the blackboard.
15.	Adjectives of size, colour and length, (use attributively and predicatively)	The red book is one the small desk.
16.	Where is . . . ? Where are . . . ?	Where is the short ruler?
17.	Revision of cardinal numbers	(*one* to *one million* with attention to spelling and the use of the hyphen)
18.	Telling the time	It's twelve o'clock. It's half-past six. It's a quarter *to/past* four. It's five *past/to* three.
19.	*We, you* (plural), *they*	We are near the door. You are near the window. They are near the blackboard.
20.	Present continuous tense. Verb patterns: (a) S × V × D.O. (b) S × V (× Adverb phrase) Questions with *What*	What is he doing? (i) He is touching the door. (ii) He is walking to the door He is putting the ball in the box.
21.	Personal pronouns, object forms	Look at *me/him/her/it/them/us.* I am looking at you.
22.	Verb pattern: S × V × Adverb/adverbial particle	He's putting the book down. He's putting it down. She's taking her shoes off. She's taking them off. (See Verb Pattern 17(a)).
23.	*Have, has*	A triangle has three sides. She has (got) two pencils in her hand. Has she (got) a new pencil box. (Pupils often confuse 'have', 'has' with 'there is', 'there are'. Thorough drilling in needed to ensure that they understand the difference.)
24.	*How many* . . . ?	How many sides has a square?

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* The language structures listed here are divided into five sections, each comprising one year's work for classes preparing for English Language Syllabus B of the Hong Kong Certificate of Education Examination. For other classes, one section comprises *more than one year's work*. For details, see page 4.

Items	Examples
25. *There is a . . . There are . . .*	There is a cat in the picture. Are there three books on my desk? Yes, there are.
26. *Some, any, no.*	There are some red flowers in the pot. Are there any yellow flowers? No, there aren't. There aren't any yellow flowers. There are no yellow flowers.
27. *Something, anything, nothing, someone, anyone, no one, somebody, anybody, nobody*	I have something in my left hand. Is there anything in my right hand? No, there isn't (anything in my right hand). There is nothing in my right hand.
28. *There are* . . . (without *some*)	There are reservoirs in many parts of Hong Kong.
29. *Who? Which?* Short answers with the verb *be*	Who is opening the door? He is. Which pen is on my desk, the red pen or the green pen? The red pen is.
30. *Its, our, their, your* (plural) The apostrophe with plural nouns	This is a cat. This is its tail. A boys' school. Men's clothes. Women's dresses. Children's toys.
31. Revision of ordinal numbers	(*first* to *ninety-ninth* with attention to spelling).
32. Revision of the calendar	There are sixty minutes in an hour. There are twelve months in a year. The first month is January. To-day is Monday, the first of January. (Revise writing the date.)
33. Verb pattern: S × V × I.O × D.O.	I'm giving you a picture. Show me your exercise book.
34. Revise common propositions: *between, over, under, behind, in front of*	
35. Uncountable nouns (materials)	This is a glass. This is water. There is some water in the glass. There isn't any ink.
36. Noun × of × Noun	A glass of water. A box of matches.
37. *Made of*	The table is made of wood.
38. Possessives	(a) Whose (book) is this? (b) It's Peter's/Mary's. (c) It's mine/yours/his/hers/ours/theirs. (NOTE: *No* apostrophe)

<table>
<tr><th>Items</th><th>Examples</th></tr>
<tr><td>39. <i>One</i></td><td>This one is mine.
Which ones are theirs?</td></tr>
<tr><td>40. The future with <i>going to</i></td><td>What is he going to do?
He's going to draw on the blackboard.</td></tr>
<tr><td>41. The present perfect tense (emphasising the result in the present of actions performed in the immediate past)</td><td>You have just put the book on the desk.
What have you just done?</td></tr>
<tr><td>42. The simple past tense</td><td>(a) <i>was, were, had.</i>
(b) regular verbs, the past tense ending in <i>–d</i> or <i>ed.</i>
(c) common irregular verbs: <i>come, do, give, go, put, take, write</i></td></tr>
<tr><td>43. Word order: numerals after these, those and the possessives.</td><td>These three books are mine.
<i>My/John's</i> three books are red.</td></tr>
<tr><td>44. <i>Every, all, both</i></td><td>(a) Every boy is standing up.
Not every boy is standing up.
(b) All <i>the/these/my/Peter's</i> books are red.
(c) Both <i>the/these/my/Peter's</i> books are red.</td></tr>
<tr><td>45. The future with <i>will</i></td><td>He will be here tomorrow.
Next month will be December.
NOTE: A distinction between <i>will</i> and <i>shall</i> is observed by many English speakers, e.i.
<table>
<tr><td>I/We</td><td>shall</td><td rowspan="2">be fifteen next month</td></tr>
<tr><td>You/he/they</td><td>will</td></tr>
</table>
But <i>I/We</i> will is quite acceptable and may be taught, <i>shall</i> being ignored or postponed.</td></tr>
<tr><td>46. The simple present tense</td><td>(a) He goes to school every day.
Does he go to school every day?
Yes, he does.
(b) The sun rises in the east.
The moon shines at night.</td></tr>
<tr><td>47. <i>When?</i></td><td>When does the moon shine?</td></tr>
<tr><td>48. Common prepositions</td><td>above, across, against, along, among, behind, below, beside, between, by, in, into, in front of, inside, of, on, outside, over, round, through, under, with.</td></tr>
</table>

SECTION II

N.B. THE USE OF GRAMMATICAL TERMS IS FOR THE TEACHER'S REFERENCE ONLY. THEY SHOULD NOT BE TAUGHT TO THE PUPILS.

Items	Examples
49. Adjective phrases	The ball in my right hand is red. The man with the black hat is Mr. Brown.
50. Adjective clauses (defining)	The box you gave me is heavy.
51. *What* (adjective), *What kind of*	What colour is your pen? What time is it? What kind of book is this? (*What* is used when the choice is comparatively unrestricted.)
52. *Which* (adjective)	Look at these three books. Which is the biggest? (Which is used when the choice is restricted.)
53. *Some, any, none* (pronouns)	There are some pens on the desk and there are some in the box. Are there any in the bag? No, there aren't. There aren't any in the bag. There are none in the bag. (Use also with uncountable nouns: There is some (water) in the glass.)
54. *Some, any, none, both, all* and numerals, followed by *of*	Some of them are mine. Are any of them yours? Two of them are his. All of the water is in the glass.
55. Preposition phrases without articles	Go to school, bed, church, prison, work. Go home.
56. Adverbials of time	At four o'clock; on Sundays, on Sunday morning; on the first of August; *last/next* Monday, *last/next* week; this morning, this week.
57. *Have a lesson, have breakfast,* etc.	We have an English lesson every day. Do you have a history lesson every day? Yes, we do. No, we don't. We don't have breakfast at twelve o'clock.
58. *Who, Which:* short answers with *have and do*	*Who/Which boy* sits near the door? He does. *Who/Which girl* has the ruler? She has. *Who/Which boy* drew on the blackboard? John did.
59. *Whose:* short answers with *be*	Whose wallet is on the desk? Mine is. Yours isn't.
60. *Can, cannot, can't; with*	(a) Can you see the blackboard? Yes, I can. No, I can't. (b) What can you do with a knife?
61. Verb pattern: S × V × D.O. × to × Noun	(a) She gave the book to the girl behind her. (b) To whom did she give the book? (formal) Who did she give the book to? (informal)
62. *Many*	(a) How many bottles are there on the desk? Are there many bottles on the desk? (b) There aren't many (bottles on the desk). (c) There are a lot (of bottles on the desk). There is a large number (of bottles on the desk).
63. *Much*	How much water is there in the jug? Is there much (water in the jug)? There is a lot (of water in the jug). There isn't much (water in the jug).
64. *A few, a little*	There are (only) a few bottles on the desk. There is (only) a little water in the jug.
65. Adverb clauses of condition, present sequence; *without.*	If you have money, you can buy something. You can't buy anything without money.
66. *Want to; must*	I want (you) to buy something. We must have money if we want to buy something.
67. *Why, because, very*	Why can't he lift the box? Because it is very heavy.
68. *Too, enough*	The box is too heavy (for him) to lift. He is not strong enough to lift it.
69. Requests	Please (don't) open the door. Open the door, please. Will you open the door, please?
70. Verb pattern: *Ask, tell* × (pro) noun (× not) × to infinitive	*Ask/tell* him (not) to open the door.
71. Verb pattern: *Ask, tell* × (pro) noun × noun	I asked him the time.
72. Verb pattern: *Ask, tell* × (pro) noun × noun clause	How many windows are there in this room? Ask him how many windows there are in this room When will the lesson end? Ask him when the lesson will end.

Items	Examples
	NOTE: Word order in indirect questions is a common source of error. Copious drilling is needed. Begin teaching this structure by using an example where the question word is the subject, e.g. 'He wants to know who is in the room'.
73. *Yet, still, already*	Has he finished yet? No, he hasn't finished yet. Is he still writing? He is still writing. He still has the chalk. We have already finished. We already know the answer. We know the answer already.
74. Reflexive pronouns: *myself, yourself, himself, herself, ourselves, yourselves, themselves.*	He hurt himself. She looked at herself in the mirror.
75. *For* (purpose); *What . . . for;* the gerund.	What is the bottle for? It's for ink. What is ink used for? We use ink for writing on paper.
76. Verb pattern: S × V × adverbial particle × D.O. (long)	Revise: He picked the book up. He picked it up. Teach : He picked up the big, red book with the paper cover.
77. Verbs not often used in the continuous tenses: *like, want, know,* etc.	I like coffee. He wants a dollor. Do you know the answer? Do you know what this is called?
78. *Another; other*(s)	I don't like that one. Give me another (one). I have one book but I want another (one). This box is full. The other one is empty. The others are empty.
79. Question tags with *be, have, go, will, can, must.*	He was helping, wasn't he? They like it, don't they? The girls don't like it, do they? It isn't raining, is it? There are some others, aren't there? He'll be late, won't he? *NOTE:* intonation is important. The most common use of question-tags occurs when the speaker expects the listener to agree, in which case a falling intonation is used: He was ↘ helping ↘ wasn't he? N.B. Question tags are very commonly used in spoken English; rarely in written English.
80. The past continuous tense: *How long?*	How long were you working? We were working *all the morning/for three hours/from nine o'clock until twelve o'clock.*
81. Adverb clauses of time with *while*	While the teacher was writing, Peter opened the door. While he was writing, she was reading.
82. *How often?* Adverbs and adverb phases of frequency	(a) (midposition) *ever, never, often:* Is he ever late? He is never late. He often comes late. (b) (end position) *once, twice, three times, every day,* etc. We have English *ten times a week/every day*
83. *How wide (tall, long, high, far)?*	How wide is the table? How far is it from Aberdean to Central District?
84. *More*	(a) (with countable nouns) I want *two/some/no/a few* more flowers. I don't want any more toys. (b) (with uncountable nouns) I want *some/a little/a lot/no* more milk. I don't want any more water. (c) (with of) We want some more of these apples. I want some more of that coffee.
85. *(very) few; (very) little*	There aren't many people. There are very few people. There isn't much water. There is very little water.
86. *More/fewer/less than . . .*	(a) John has more *books/ink* than Peter. Peter has fewer books than John. He has less ink than John. (b) 13 is less than 30. 50 is more than 15.
87. Comparative and superlative of adjectives	(a) (–er, –est) This boy is taller than that one. This boy is the tallest of the three boys. (b) (more, most) This book is more interesting than the other one. This one is the most interesting of all the exercises.

Items	Examples
	(c) (irregular adjectives) good, better, best bad, worse, worst far, father/further, farthest/furthest old, elder, eldest
	(d) (most, fewest, least) Who has *most/least* (money)? Who has *most/fewest* (books)?
88. (not) *as . . . as*	John is as tall as Peter. He is not as tall as Mark. There are/aren't as many books on my desk as there are on her desk. There *is/isn't* as much water in the glass as there is in the bottle.
89. Adverb clauses of reason with *because, as* and *since*	Because/as/since he was ill, he didn't come to school.

SECTION III

N.B. THE USE OF GRAMMATICAL TERMS IS FOR THE TEACHER'S REFERENCE ONLY. THEY SHOULD NOT BE TAUGHT TO THE PUPILS.

Items	Examples
90. Adverbs of manner; position	(a) quickly, slowly, etc. (b) well, fast, hard, early, late, aloud, (very), much, (not) at all, a little, a lot.
91. Comparisons with *like, the same (as); different (from)* and *the difference between*	(a) This flower is like that one. (b) What's this flower like? It's small and red. What's the weather like today? It's hot. (c) The man's hat is the *same as/different from* the woman's. (d) What's the difference between the two rulers? One is long and the other is short. (e) A is *very much/not at all/a little* like B.
92. Verb pattern: *It* × *be* × subject complement × subject.	It is easy for him to do that.
93. Adjectives followed by a to-infinitive	English is easy to learn. The door is hard to open.
94. *Know* followed by an interrogative adverb or pronoun and an infinitive	Do you know where to look? I know what to do.
95. *Know* followed by an interrogative adverb or pronoun introducing a clause	Do you know where it is? I know what his name is.
96. *Can, could, be able to*	(a) (present time) Can you swim now? Are you able to see him? (b) (past time) Could you swim when you were five? Were you able to see him? (c) (future time) Can you come tomorrow? Will you be able to come tomorrow?
97. Infinitive of purpose	Why do we come to school? (We come to school) to learn things. He held up the picture for us to see.
98. Infinitives after nouns	Paper to write on; a pen to write with; something to eat; homework to do.
99. Adverb clauses of condition; future time, unfulfilled or impossible conditions	(a) (future time) If I drop the glass it will break. If it does not rain, we will go to the beach. (b) unfulfilled conditions: I am not going to drop the glass. If I dropped it, it would break. If I stood on a table, I would be able to touch the ceiling. *NOTE:* We may say: I/We *would* or *should* but it is simpler to teach *would*. (c) (unlikely or impossible conditions) If I had a hundred thousand dollars, I would be rich. If I were rich, I would travel around the world. N.B. 'Whether' is not interchangeable with 'If' here.
100. Obligation and its opposite: *I must*	(a) (present time) I *must/have (got) to* go now. Must you go now? Do you have to go now? Have you got to go now? No, I don't have to go now. I haven't got to go now.

Items	Examples
	(b) (future time) I *must/will have to* go tomorrow. Must you go tomorrow? Do you have to go tomorrow? Have you got to go tomorrow? Will you have to go tomorrow? (c) (past time) I had to go yesterday. Did you have to go yesterday? No, I didn't have to go yesterday.
101. I *ought* and *should*	You *should/ought to* go to bed earlier. You *shouldn't/ought not to* do your homework in class You *shouldn't/ought not to* have done that. It was unwise. You should have taken my advice.
102. Necessity and its opposite	(a) (present and future time) *Do we need to* answer all the questions? No, you needn't. No, you don't need to. Yes, you must. Yes, you have to. (b) (past time) We didn't need to go (so we did not go). We needn't have gone (but we did).
103. Adverb clauses of time with *when, before* and *after.*	(a) (the present simple or present perfect tenses) We eat when we are hungry. I have breakfast before I go to school. He goes to bed after he has done his homework. (b) (the present simple or future tenses) When I grow up, I will travel round the world.
104. The past perfect tense, simple and continuous	(a) (in adverbial clauses of time) The bell rang before we had finished. (b) (in reported speech after *said* and told) He *said/told* me that he had finished.
105. The passive voice	(Using natural English only) The box is made of wood. A cat is covered with fur. Hong Kong is divided into districts. 'Oliver Twist' was written by Charles Dickens. He was knocked down by a bus and taken to hospital.
106. Present perfect continuous tense	He has been living in Hong Kong for five years. (R) for pupils taking Course (a)
107. The future perfect, simple and continuous	We will have finished the book by the end of the week. By 1980, he will have been living in Hong Kong for twenty years. (R) for pupils taking course (a), and it is not advisable to encourage pupils taking course (b) to over-use these tenses.

Items	Examples
108. Adverb clauses with *although*	Although it was raining, they went for a walk. (A very misused construction by Chinese learners of English, and not over-used in speech by native speakers. With pupils taking Course (a) it might be advisable to teach for recognition purposes, but encourage 'It was raining but we went for a walk' etc.)
109. Adverb clauses of time with *as, since, till* and *until*	As he was coming to school, he saw his friend. *He has been working in an office since he left school. Go on writing *until/till* the bell rings. He won't decide until his father comes home. *(For pupils taking Course (a) teach for recognition purposes only. 'He has worked in an office since he left school' is quite acceptable).
110. Possibility and probability	(a) The weather may be hotter soon. He said that the weather might be hotter soon. He is late. (R) He may have missed the bus. ('He is late. Perhaps he has missed the bus' is acceptable). (b) It is *possible/probable/likely* that the weather will change soon. (c) It might rain but I don't think it will.
111. Permission	May I ask a question? Yes, you may. No, you may not.
112. Prohibition	You must not eat sweets in class.
113. Adjective patterns	(a) He was *glad* to see us. (pleased, delighted, surprised, etc.) (b) afraid *of* something; afraid to do something. (c) He is *certain/sure/likely* to win. (d) I am sorry (that) you have been ill. I am glad (that) you are better.
114. Adverb clauses of condition unfulfilled conditions in the past time.	If I had dropped the glass, it would have broken.
115. Unless; in case (of) (R)	We shall go for a swim on Saturday unless it rains. Take an umbrella in case *it rains/of rain.* (Simple and quite acceptable for pupils taking both courses is:— 'Take an umbrella. It may rain' (This construction is difficult and very misused)
116. *Wish*	(a) I wish I could speak French. I wish I had a million dollars. I wish you wouldn't do that. (b) The Headmaster *wishes/would like* to see you.

Items	Examples
117. Adverb clauses of result; so × adjective × *that; so many/few* ... that; *so much/little* ... *that; such* ... *as.*	The box was so heavy that he could not lift it. There were so many books that he could not carry them. There was so much noise that we could not hear what she was saying. It was such a heavy box that no one could lift it. I've never met such a strange person (as he is).
118. Relative clauses, defining and non-defining.	(a) Teach defining clauses first and use contact clauses—where the relative pronoun is omitted—whenever possible. This is shown by brackets in the following examples (i) (where the relative pronoun is the object of the verb in the clause) The book (*that*)/(*which*) I wanted was missing. The man (*whom*)/(*that*) you saw is my brother. *Note: whom* is used in formal writing and formal speech only. (ii) (where the relative pronoun is the subject of the verb in the clause) The bus *that/which* usually stops here is late. The boy *who/that* helped you is the school captain. (iii) (relative clause with prepositions) The house *(that) he lives in/in which he lives* is very small. The boy *(that) you were talking to/to whom you were talking* is my brother. B.N. Teach the simpler and more commonly used form for active use. e.g. The house (that) he lives in is very small. The boy (that) you were talking to is my brother. (iv) (with *whose*) The girl whose desk I am using is absent from school. (b) Repeat the above categories as non-defining clauses. These supply additional but not essential information and are usually marked off by commas: "Treasure Island", which was written by R. L. Stevenson, is a well-known adventure story. The No. 11 bus, which usually stops here, is late.
119. *Either ... or; neither ... nor*	It's either in the desk or on the shelf. It's neither a cat nor a dog; it's a monkey. Neither he nor his brother is in my class. You may have *either/neither* of them.
120. *So do I, neither was she, nor will he,* etc.	*Use so, neither, nor* in this pattern with finite verbs and *am, is, are, was, were; have, has, had; do, does, did; will, shall: can, could; must; would should; may, ought.* She likes painting. So does her brother. He isn't very tall. Neither am I.
121. *Each, every, all*	I have a ball *in each hand/in each of my hands.* I have given each boy a book. Every boy has a book. All the boys have books. Each boy has a different book.
122. *Every other*	(*=all the other*) This pencil is yellow but every other pencil in the box is red.
123. *Each other, one another*	All the boys are helping *each other/one another.*
124. *Else*	There is a doll in the box and something else. What else is there in the box? Teach *else* linked with *that, what, who, something, arything, nothing, someboyd, anybody, nobody* and *where.*
125. Emphatic pronouns	I myself have never met him. She did the work herself. I spoke to the manager himself. Can you lift it by yourself?

SECTION IV

N.B. THE USE OF GRAMMATICAL TERMS IS FOR THE TEACHER'S REFERENCE ONLY. THEY SHOULD NOT BE TAUGHT TO THE PUPILS.

In Sections I, II and III, separate items were given in a possible teaching/revision order. Now that the basic patterns have been mastered, order becomes less important. Oral practice remains essential but situational teaching is more difficult. There will be a greater emphasis on written exercises. Sections IV and V group items under grammatical and semantic headings, the aim being to revise and expand upon what has already been taught.

Sections IV and V are based upon *A Guide to Patterns and Usage in English* by A. S. Hornby.

126. Revise Verb Patterns, List A, where necessary.

127. Anomalous finites ("special" verbs): *am, is, are, was, were; have, has, had; do, does, did; shall, should; will, would; can, could; may, might; must; ought; need; dare; used.*

(a) Formation of the negative including contracted negative forms.

(b) Formation of the interrogative and negative-interrogative:
Doesn't he want it?

(c) Question tags.

(d) Short answers: *Did you speak to the Headmaster? 'Yes, I did.'*

(e) Inversion of subject and verbs with *hardly, scarcely, little.*
(Not overused by native speakers. It is recommended that active use should not be encouraged.)

(f) *So did I, Neither/Nor can we,* etc.

(g) adverb position.

(h) *have* 1. possession: (*He has (got) ..., Has he ...? Does he have ...?)*

2. take, receive, experience: *We have English once a day.*
When do you have breakfast?

3. obligation: *When do you have to go?*

4. causing something to be done: *I must have this coat cleaned.*
How often do you have your hair cut?

5. have a drink, rest, sleep, walk, etc.: *Did you have a pleasant walk?*

(i) *need:* Revise item 103 (Section III)

(j) *dare* 1. *He daren't do it.* (present, past and future time)

2. *He didn't dare* (to) do it. (past time)
He doesn't dare (to) do it. (present and future time)

3. challenge: *I dared him to do it again.*

(k) *used to* 1. Distinguish between its pronunciation (juːst) and that of the past tense of use (juːzd).

2. Interrogative and negative forms, question tags and short responses are nowadays more commonly formed with *do:*
He used to do it. Did he use to do it? He didn't use to do it, did he? No, he didn't.

(l) *must:* the use of *can't, needn't* and *mustn't* as the negatives of *must.*

e.g. 1. He *must* be over fifty.
He *can't* be fifty.

2. You *must* finish it to-day.
You *needn't* finish it to-day.

3. You *must* be quiet.
You *mustn't* make any noise.

128. Tenses: The present simple for:

(a) 1. 'eternal truths': *The earth moves round the sun.*

2. general statements: *He speaks three languages.*

3. repeated or habitual activities: *She often comes to school late.*

4. references to something written or printed: *The newspaper says that ... In his letter, John says ....*

5. the future in adverb clauses of time and condition: *I will tell him when I see him. If you go there, you will see it.*

6. certain verbs not normally used in the continuous tenses. See (k), 1. and 2. below.

7. In such exclamations as: *Here he comes! There it goes!*

(b) The present continuous for:

1. an activity or state continuing in the immediate present:
She is sleeping now.

2. a more general present: *He is playing in the school team this year.*

3. frequent repetition: *He is always complaining.*

4. events planned for the future: *We are going away on holiday next week.*

5. intention or probability using *going to: I'm going to tell you a story.*
I think it's going to rain.

(c) The present perfect for:

1. past activities within a period extending to and including the present *with no definite point or period of time mentioned: Have you ever been to London?*

Note: a common mistake is to use an adverbial of time:
I have done it yesterday.

2. The result in the present of an activity or experience in the past: *I have finished the work.* (i.e. The work *is* finished).

3. an activity completed in the immediate past using *just:*
The lesson has just begun.

4. future time in adverb clauses of time and condition: *I will do it when/if I have finished the other work.*

Note: Practise the use of the present perfect with *since, for, already, yet, ever, never, just, often, several times,* etc.

(d) The present perfect continuous expressing activities or states extending over a period of time that began in the past, include the present and *may* extend into the future:

We have been studying English for four years (and intend to continue studying it).

I am tired. I have been working all day (but now I have stopped).

(e) The past simple for:

1. activities or states in the past without any connection with the present; *I bought this yesterday. He lived in China when he was a child.*

2. a succession of activities in which the order is clear: *He stopped, looked round and waited.*

Note: The past perfect should not be used if the sequence of events is clear: over-use of the past perfect is a common error.

3. repeated or habitual activities in the past: *Last summer I swam in the sea every day.*

Note: See Item 127 (k): *used to*

4. Occasional occurrences of activity in the past time using *would:*

(R) *Sometimes he would be late for school.*

Note: This item may be omitted since the simple past may be used in place of *would.* It is a common error to use *would* for repeated or habitual activities in the past, in an essay describing childhood days, for example, when the simple past tense would be more appropriate.

(f) The past continuous for:

1. an activity or state continuing at the time when another activity occurred: *When he reached school, the other children were waiting.*

2. emphasis on the continuity of a past action: *They were talking for the whole of the lesson.*

3. two or more activities or states continuing at the same time: *One of the boys was reading a book while the teacher was talking.*

4. frequent repetition in the past: *He was always complaining.*

(g) The past perfect and (R) past perfect continuous for:

1. activities that took place within a period of time and extended to and included a point or period of time in the past.

   When we arrived, the concert had started.
   By 1960, he had been living there ten years.

2. reported speech: *He said that he had already done it.*
   She told me that she had been waiting for ten minutes.

(h) The future simple for the 'pure' future:

We will go there tomorrow.
If you hurry, you will finish by four o'clock.

Note: Some speakers use *I will* to indicate determination and *I shall* for the 'pure' future but nowadays most people use 'will' or the contracted form, e.g. 'I'll', 'you'll', etc.

(i) The future continous for:

1. an activity or state that will extend over a period of time in the future: *I wonder what we shall be doing at this time tomorrow. I shall be working for the whole of tomorrow evening.*

2. future events that are planned: *I shall be going home soon.*

   (R) (This tense is rarely used by native speakers in speech or in writing. It is recommended that active use should not be encouraged for pupils taking both courses)

(j) (R) The future perfect and (R) future perfect continuous for activities that will, or are likely to extend to and include a point or period of time in the future. *By this time next year I shall have left school. When this programme finishes, you will have been listening to the radio for four hours.*

(k) verbs not often used in the continuous tenses:

1. verbs of perception: *see, hear, smell, taste, feel, notice, observe, recognize.*

2. 'non-conclusive' verbs: *agree, imagine, know, forgive, hate, prefer, belong to, consist of, seem* etc., etc.

129. Reported speech; practice in the various constructions involved:

(a) reported statements and questions with particular attention to:

1. introductory verbs.
2. tense changes, where necessary.
3. word order in reported questions.
4. the use of question words and *whether/if* in reported questions,
5. changes in pronouns, adverbs and adverb phrases.
6. *shall/will* becoming *would*, except when *shall* is used to request instructions:

   'I shall tell him.' He said that he would tell him.
   'Shall I be the one chosen' he wondered. He wondered whether he would be the one chosen.
   'Shall I close the window?' he asked the teacher. He asked the teacher if he should close the window.

(b) reported commands paying particular attention to:

1. supplying suitable introductory verbs.
2. including the person receiving the order in the reported command. *'stop it!' he said. He told them to stop it.*

(c) exclamations. practice in the various ways of re-writing exclamations.

e.g. *'Hallo!' he said to her. He greeted her.*
(But:—He said 'Hallo' to her! is acceptable)

130. Determinatives. Revise:

(a) countable and uncountable nouns.

(b) the articles *a, an* and *the* and their use with countable and uncountable nouns.

(c) other determinatives.

with countable nouns	*with uncountable nouns*
some books	some rice
no	no
several	—
a few	a little
two or three	—
(not) many	(not) much
plenty of	plenty of
a lot of	a lot of
lots of	lots of
a large number of	a large quantity of
—	a good/great deal of
enough	enough
none of the	none of the
all the	all the

Note: 1. Avoid the use of *many* and *much* in affirmative statements unless used with *how* or *too*. Practise in negative and interrogative constructions. *There aren't many people here. Do you think there will be much rain? Yes, I think we are going to have a lot of rain.*

2. *Some* is usually replaced by *any* in negative and interrogative sentences. The use of *some* in a question invites or expects the answer 'Yes'.

'Aren't there some more you have forgotten?'
'Oh, yes.'

131. Noun Patterns

(a) Noun (× *for* × (Pro) noun) × *to* infinitive:

a promise to do it, his ambition to become famous, a family to support, the first to arrive, something for her to see, time for us to leave.

(b) Noun × Preposition × (Pro) noun:

the reason for his absence, a quarrel about money, dissatisfaction with his progress, a discussion about the future, the news of their success.

Note: The noun and preposition form a unit and should be learnt as such when they occur in reading. Notice that the preposition used with a noun is not always used with the corresponding verb: *we say a discussion about the future* but *we discussed the future* NOT X *We discussed about the future* X

(c) Noun × *that*—clause

The news that they had all passed delighted everyone.

Compare: *The news of their success,* Noun Pattern (b) above. The preposition is omitted before a *that*—clause.

(d) Noun (× Preposition) × Conjunctive × Phrase or Clause

I have no idea (as to) why he did it

They are still discussing the question (of) whether the society should increase its membership.

He is in doubt (about) what to do.

Note: The preposition used with a noun in Noun Pattern (b) is often but not always used with a phrase or clause introduced by a conjunctive.

132. Adjective Patterns

(a) Adjective × *to*—infinitive

He was foolish to say that.

This may be rephrased:

It was foolish of him to say that.
How foolish of him to say that!

1. Adjectives describing personal qualities are used in the above three patterns: *brave, careless, clever, cruel, foolish, good, kind, unkind, nice, rude, silly, stupid, wicked, wise, wrong,* etc.
2. Adjectives expressing emotion or desire are used in the first of the above three patterns:

   I was sorry to hear of your illness.
   We are delighted to hear of your success.
   He was eager to do well.
   The children were impatient for the concert to begin.
3. Other combinations of an adjective and a *to*-infinitive should be learnt and practised as they are encountered e.g. *sure to, certain to, ready to, willing to, likely to, difficult to, easy to, hard to,* etc., etc.
4. The use of the *to-infinitive* after an adjective modified by *too* and *enough* should be practised.

   Would you be kind enough to help me?
   It was too heavy (for us) to lift.

(b) Adjective × Preposition × (Pro) noun:

afraid of something, angry with somebody, angry at something, dependent upon

Note: The adjective (or past participle) and the preposition should be learnt together but notice that an adjective may be used with more than one preposition. e.g. *anxious for news, anxious about someone's health.*

(c) Adjective (× Preposition) × Clause or Phrase

I am not sure (about) what to do/what I should do.
I am not sure that he is coming.

Note: The preposition is often omitted before the conjunctive and always omitted before a *that*-clause. Adjectives and past participles denoting perceptions, emotion and desire are used in this pattern, e.g. *aware, glad, delighted, surprised, certain, confident, sorry, disappointed, angry.*

133. Participles. Revise:

(a) the present, past and perfect forms, active and passive:
Active: *finishing, finished, having finished.*
Passive: *being finished, finished, having been finished.*

(b) their use in the formation of the continuous and perfect tenses and the passive voice.

(c) the use of the present and past participles as adjectives. (Note: *I am bored.* NOT: × *I am boring* ×)

(d) the use of present and past participle phrases and the avoidance of the misrelated participle phrase.

134. The Gerund. Revise:

(a) as subject: *Walking is good for the health.*

(b) as object: *She enjoys singing cheerful songs.*
They stopped talking.
(see Verb Patterns A. 11 and A. 16)

(c) after a preposition: *I am tired of waiting.*

Note particularly the use of *by* and *for.*

He made the paper smaller by folding it.
We use a saw for cutting wood.
He was punished for being late.

(d) *It is no use/good complaining.*
(see Verb Pattern B. 4)

(e) with possessives:

Please excuse my saying that. We enjoyed his singing.

Note: In some cases it is possible to use a personal pronoun instead of a possessive.

Please excuse me saying that.

But it would NOT be possible to say:

X *We enjoyed him singing.* X

(f) used as an attributive adjective: *a walking stick.*

Note: the gerund should be distinguished from a present participle used as an attributive adjective, as the stress differs:

a WALKing-stick (a stick for walking: gerund)
a walking DOLL (a doll that walks: participle)

135. **The Infinitive. Revise:**

(a) as subject: (R) *To join a library would be sensible.*
(R) *To annoy him is not a good idea.*

Note: This is an uncommon construction and practice should be given in expressing the same ideas using *it: It would be sensible to join a library. It is not a good idea to annoy him.*

(b) 1. Verb Patterns A. 11 (and A. 16)
She tried to help.

2. Verb patterns A. 12 and A. 13
They advised him to do it.
They made him do it.

3. Verb Patterns A. 14(a), (b) and (c)—the infinitive of purpose.

4. Verb Pattern A. 28—the infinitive after a conjunctive.

5. Verb Pattern A. 31
It is easy (for him) to do that.

6. Verb Patterns B. 3
It seemed useless to refuse.

7. Verb Pattern B. 7—arrangements, etc.

8. Verb Pattern B. 8—equivalent of a co-ordinate clause.

(c) the infinitive after nouns and adjectives: see items 131(a) and 132(a).

(d) with indefinite pronouns: *something, anything, nothing, somebody (someone), anybody (anyone), nobody (no one).*
Give him something to do.
Have you anything for me to read?

136. The expression of various concepts including the revision of adverb clause constructions.

(a) Conditions and suppositions

1. Open conditions: *If the weather is fine, we shall go for a swim.*
If you have finished the work by four o'clock, I shall let you go home.

Note the use of the present tenses for future time.

2. Untrue, impossible or unlikely conditions.
If I had any money, I would give it to you.
If I were you, I wouldn't do it.
If you asked him, he might help you.

3. Unfulfilled conditions—past.
If the weather had been fine, we could have gone for a swim.

4. The use of *if, even if, if only, so long as, suppose, unless, on condition that,* (R) *providing (that),* (R) *supposing (that)* to introduce adverbial clauses of condition.

(b) Purpose

1. The use of the verbs *intend* and *mean* and the nouns *intention* and *plan.*

2. *Going to* followed by an infinitive to express intention.

3. *The infinitive of purpose:*
She stood up (in order) to see better.
The teacher held up the picture for them to see.
She wants a book to read.

4. The use of *so that* and *in order that* introducing an adverb clause of purpose.
He stopped the car so/in order that we might/could get out.

5. *In case:*
She packed the vase in cotton wool in case it might/should be broken.

6. *For* with a gerund:
He used a pair of glasses for reading.

(c) Result

1. *too, enough, so . . . as, such . . . as*
She is too tired to keep her eyes open.
He is old enough to understand.
You were not so silly as to believe him, were you?
She was not such a fool as to believe him.

2. Adverb clauses of result:
It was so high that I could not reach it.
She spoke so quickly that we could not understand what she was saying.
He was such a good singer } that he won all the prizes.
He was so good a singer }

(d) Cause or reason:

1. adverb clauses of reason introduced by: *because, as,* and *since:*
He bought a new pen because he had lost his old one.

2. (R) *for* as a co-ordinating conjunction:
He drove carefully, for the road was slippery.
(very misused. Encourage the use of 'because' in speech and in writing)

3. participle constructions: (R)
Exhausted by the long day's work, she went to bed.
(As she was exhausted ....)
Hearing someone call, he turned round.
(When/since he heard ....)
The weather being fine, we went for a walk.
(As the weather was fine, ...)

4. a preposition and a gerund:
He was punished for breaking the window.

5. the use of *the reason for; the cause of, because of* and *on account of:*

(e) Comparisons

1. Comparisons of equality:
Your ruler is (not) as long as mine (is).
He works as hard as his brother (does).

2. Comparisons of inequality:
This book is cheaper/less expensive than the other one.

3. the . . . the . . .
The more he read the more interested he became.
The bigger the better.
The more the merrier.

(f) Concession:

1. adverb clauses of concession:
   Though/Although/Even though it was raining, they went to the beach.

   Note: X *Although* . . . *but* X is a common error.
2. the use of *in spite of* and *despite:*
   In spite of/Despite the rain, they went on playing.
3. the use of *however, whatever, whoever,* etc.
   However early he got up, he was still late for school.
   Whatever people say, you know that you are innocent.
4. the use of *no matter:*
   No matter what we said, he would not change his mind.

   (Often misused. The teacher must drill thoroughly to ensure that pupils realise that 'no matter' is always followed by a word such as, 'how', 'what', 'where', 'who', etc.)

(g) Time

1. adverb clauses of time introduced by: *when, while, until, after, as soon as, whenever*
   When I see him, I will tell him what happened.

   NOTE: The use of the present tense, *see,* for future time
2. prepositional phrases of time: *at three o'clock, in the afternoon, on January 1st, in an hour's time.*
3. other adverb phrases of time: *the week after next, tomorrow week, the month before last, a week last Friday, next Tuesday week,* etc.

(h) Manner

1. *as, as if,* introducing a clause:
   Do as I do.
   He looked at me as if I were a stranger.
2. *like* before a noun:
   He swims like a fish.
   He fought like a hero.

(i) Place: adverb clauses introduced by *where:*
   Take it back where it came from.

SECTION V

N.B. THE USE OF GRAMMATICAL TERMS IS FOR THE TEACHER'S REFERENCE ONLY. THEY SHOULD NOT BE TAUGHT TO THE PUPILS.

137. Revise Verb Pattern, lists A and B, where necessary.

138. Revise all tenses—see Item 128.

139. Revise forms and uses of the passive voice.

140. Revise reported speech—see Item 129.

141. **Revise complex sentence structures:**

(a) **adverb clauses—see Item 136.**

(b) **adjective clauses, defining and non-defining—see Item 116.**

(c) **noun clauses.**

1. Subject: *What he wanted was quite obvious.*
   (Encourage for active use: 'It was obvious what he wanted.')
2. Verb Pattern A.23
   He said that he liked it.
3. Verb Pattern A.24
   I told her that it was wrong.
4. Verb Pattern A.25
   She explained to them that she was looking for her friend.
5. Verb Pattern A.29
   No one believes what I say.
6. Verb Pattern A.30
   I asked him what he wanted.
7. as the complement of *be:*
   The truth is that she was wrong.
8. after a preposition:
   I was impressed by what he told me.
9. in apposition to a noun:
   The news that a typhoon was approaching spread swiftly through the school
10. Verb Pattern B.5
   It is a pity that it rained.

142. Sequence of tenses:

(a) As a general rule, when the main verb of a sentence is in a past tense, verbs in subordinate clauses are in a past tense also. However, exceptions are often possible according to the meaning:

He thinks that he is right.
He thought that he was right.

She says that she has finished.
She said that she had finished.

I don't understand what he means.
I didn't understand what he meant.

The book that he wants has been lent to someone else.
The book that he wanted had been lent to someone else.

It is so heavy that no one can lift it.
It was so heavy that no one could lift it.

Please hold it up so that I may see it.
She held it up so that we might see it.

He runs faster than I do.
He ran faster than I did.

Although he is small, he is very strong.
Although he was small, he was very strong.

(b) Conditional clauses:
If he comes, I will tell him.
If he came, I would tell him.
If he had come, I would have told him.

(c) Time clauses:
the use of a present tense after a conjunction of time when the main clause is in the future:
You will see him when he comes.

143. Revise anomalous finites—see Item 127.

144. Inchoative verbs—verbs denoting a change of condition:

(a) Revise verb pattern 20(b)

(b) *get:*
It is getting dark.
He is getting old.
He sometimes gets excited.
He wants to get rich quickly.

(c) *become:*
They became friendly.
He became suspicious.
The work is becoming harder.
He later became Chairman.

(d) *grow:*
It's growing late. Time is growing short.
It's growing cold. The days are growing shorter.
The sea is growing rough.

(e) *come:*
Her dreams came true. His prediction came true.
The button came undone.
Everything came right in the end.
The handle came unstuck.

(f) *go:*
He is going bald.
She went pale when she heard the news.
The telephone went dead.
The milk went sour. The fruit went rotten.
He went mad.

(g) *turn:*
The milk turned sour.
The weather has turned colder.
The liquid turned yellow.
When water freezes it turns to ice.

(h) *fall:*
She fell ill.
He fell asleep.
The post fell vacant.

145. The expression of various concepts:

(a) Commands and requests:

1. commands:
He ordered/told/asked/requested/invited them to come back the next day. (Verb Pattern A.12)
He ordered/asked/requested/suggested that they should come back the next day. (Verb Pattern A.23)
He gave orders/made the suggestion that they should come back the next day. (Noun Pattern 13 C)
She gave instructions for the house to be cleaned.
She gave instructions for the cleaning of the house. (R) (More difficult than, and not so common or natural as the structure above)

2. requests:
(Don't) close the door.
Will you close the door?
Would you mind closing the door?
Can you help me?
May I use your phone?

Note: *Please* may be added before or after the above examples.

(b) Promises and refusals:

1. promises:
He promised (me) (not) to do it. (Verb Pattern A.11)
He promised a book to his brother. (Verb Pattern A.6)
He promised his brother a book. (Verb Pattern A.8)
He promised (me) that he would do it. (Verb Pattern A.24)
He broke his promise to help.
They kept their promise that they would be early.

2. refusals:
They refused the offer.
They refused to take part.

(c) *wishes, hopes, preferences:*

1. wishes, present and future:
I wish I were rich.
I wish I knew the answer.
I wish I didn't have to go to school tomorrow.
I wish the rain would stop.

2. unfulfilled wishes, past:
I wish I had known the answer (but I didn't).
I wish I had been able to keep him (but I couldn't).

3. other patterns with *wish:*
He wished me good night. I wished him a happy new year.
I wish to go home.

4. **should/would like:**

I should like
I wish } *to say how pleased I am.*
He would like to go tomorrow.
He would like to have gone yesterday.

5. **hopes:**

I hope (that) he arrives/will arrive soon.
I hope (that) I am right. (Verb Pattern A.23)
We hope to see you soon. (Verb Pattern A.11)
We are hoping for good news. (Verb Pattern A.18)

6. **preference:**

I prefer apples to oranges.
I prefer walking to playing games.
I prefer to get up early and walk to school rather than wait for a bus.
I would rather walk to school than wait for a bus.

(d) **intention:**

I (don't) mean/intend to buy a new fountain pen.
I'm going to buy a new fountain pen.
I intended/was going to buy a new pen but I didn't have enough money.

(e) **obligation and necessity:**

Revise items 100, 101 and 102.

(f) **permission:**

1. *permit, (permission),* and *allow* with a *to*-infinitive;
let with a bare infinitive:
She permitted/allowed him to go home.
She gave him permission to go home.
She let him go home.

2. the use of *may* for asking and giving permission:
May I help you? May I come in? May I borrow Your pen?
You may borrow it. He said that I might borrow it.

(g) **possibility:**

1. *may* for uncertainty; *might* for increased uncertainty and as the past form in reported speech:
It may rain (or it may not).
He said that it might rain.
It might rain. (I don't really think it will but it is possible.)

2. *may have* and *might have*:
He may have had an accident. (I don't know. I haven't heard.)
He might have an accident, driving as carelessly as that.
(He did not have an accident but it was possible.)

3. *may* for possibility resulting from an arrangement:
Further information may be obtained from the following address.

(h) **ability:**

1. *can* denoting physical ability, ability resulting from circumstances, and with verbs of perception:
He can (cannot) jump five feet. Can you come on Friday?
I can hear someone calling.

2. *Could* and *could have* for the past:
He could touch his toes when he was younger.
You could have caught the bus if you had run (but you didn't).
He said that he couldn't help me.

VERB PATTERNS

The following lists of verb patterns are intended to provide additional practice in the use of correct *forms.* Virtually all the items in list A are included in the primary syllabus but regular practice in the lower secondary school remains essential if the frequent errors that occur in using verbs in appropriate patterns are to be eradicated. List B contains some more advanced patterns for later use. The lists are not exhaustive but contain the more important items.

There is a certain amount of overlapping with the main language structure syllabus, where items are listed for systematic presentation or revision, but the lists of verb patterns are meant to serve a different purpose: regular, frequent practice in one major source of error made by Chinese pupils. It may be necessary to give the verb patterns listed extra attention when dealing with them in the main language structure syllabus and conduct remedial drills to root out errors in the use of verb patterns detected in pupils' responses or written attempts. For example, cross references can be made in the following:—

Language Structure	Item 33	Verb Pattern List A,	Item 8
”	” 61	” ” ” ”	” 6
”	” 25	” ” ” ”	” 5
”	” 76	” ” ” ”	” 17(b)
”	” 92	” ” ” ”	” 31

Please note:

(i) The examples are given in the form of affirmative statements only but the negative and interrogative forms should also be practised.

(ii) No grammatical terms need be used. The grammatical symbols given are for the teacher's reference only.

Abbreviations

S	Subject	Conjunc.	Conjunctive
V	Verb	Prep.	Preposition
D.O.	Direct Object	Adv. Comp.	Adverbial Complement
I.O.	Indirect Object	S. Comp.	Subject Complement
Infin.	Infinitive	Obj. Comp.	Object Complement
Adj.	Adjective	Prep. Obj.	Prepositional Object

LIST A

Verb Patterns	Examples	Some verbs used
1. S × V	Lions roar.	Verbs used intransitively
2. S × V × D.O.	He lifted the box.	Transitive verbs
3. S × *be* × S. Comp.	Mary is ill. My father is a doctor.	be
4. S × V × Adv. Comp.	The lesson is over. The book is on the table. The sun rises in the east.	be, bring, come, go, keep, lie, push, send, take, throw, (and many others)
5. *There* × V × S	There are two apples on the desk.	*be* is by far the most common verb in this pattern
6. S × V × (Pro) noun × *to* × (Pro) noun	He lent the book to his brother.	bring, explain, give, hand, lend, offer, owe, pass, pay, promise, read, sell, send, show, teach, tell, write
7. S × V × (Pro) noun × *for* × (Pro) noun	She bought a present for her mother.	bring, buy, choose, cook, do, fetch, get, leave; make, paint, play, save, steal, write
8. S × V × I.O. × D.O.	He lent him a book.	This is an alternative pattern to V.P. 6 using the same verbs. V.P. 8 is preferred when the I.O. is shorter than the D.O.
9. S × V × I.O. × D.O.	She bought her a present.	An alternative pattern to V.P. 7 using the same verbs. V.P. 9 is preferred when the I.O. is shorter than the D.O.
10. *Here/There* × X × V	Here is the ruler. Here they come! There they are!	be, come, go
11. S × V × to-infin.	She tried to help.	begin, continue, decide, expect, forget*, happen, hate†, have (got), hope, learn, like†, love†, ought, prefer†, pretend, promise, refuse, remember*, start, try, want, wish. *When the meaning is '(not) call to mind' '(not) have a memory of', V.P. 16 is used. †After verbs indicating (dis) like and preference, V.P. 11 is preferred for statements about a particular occasion, especially with *would* or *should*, and V.P. 16 for general statements.
12. S × V × D.O. × to-infin.	We advised him to go.	advise, allow, ask, beg, encourage, expect, force, hate, help, invite, like, love, order, persuade, remind, request, teach, tell, want, warn, wish
13. S × V × 'bare' infin	They made me do it. We saw him fall.	feel, hear, let, listen to, make, notice, see, watch (N,B, The use of the *to*-infinitive in this pattern is a common error.)
14. (a) S × V × *to*-infin. of purpose	We stopped to buy some sweets.	Too numerous to list.
(b) S × V × D.O. × *to*-infin. of purpose	He took a ruler to measure the page.	Too numerous to list.
(c) S × V (× D.O.) × for × (Pro) noun × to-infin.	They waited for us to overtake them. She held out the picture for me to see.	Too numerous to list.
15. S × V × (Pro) noun × Present Participle	We watched the ship sailing away.	feel, hear, keep, listen to, look at, notice, see, smell, watch.
16. S × V × Gerund	They have finished writing. She likes learning English.	admit, avoid, begin, consider, continue, enjoy, finish, forget*, give up, go on, (can't) help, hate†, intend, keep on, (dis) like†, love†, mind, (it) needs, practise, prefer†, regret, remember*, risk, start, stop, suggest, try, understand *See V.P. 11 †See V.P. 11

Verb Patterns	Examples	Some verbs used
7. (a) S × V × (Pro) noun × Adverbial Particle	He put his coat on.	Too numerous to list. N.B. This order is used when the object is a personal, reflexive or demonstrative pronoun or is comparatively short.
(b) S × V × Adverbial Particle × Noun	He put on his thick winter coat.	Too numerous to list. N.B. This order is used when the object is long or when it is wished to make the object more prominent.
8. S × V × Prep. × Prep. Obj.	He decided upon the answer.	A large number of verbs closely linked with prepositions. The verb and preposition must be learnt as a unit. Some examples: agree to, agree upon, agree with, believe in, belong to, complain of, listen to, look at, succeed in, wait for
9. S × V × D.O. × Prep. × Obj.	They accused him of theft.	A large number of verbs closely linked with prepositions. The verb and preposition must be learnt as a unit. Some examples: add ... to, compare ... with, excuse ... for, keep ... for, prevent ... from, remind ... about/of, spend ... on, thank ... for, waste ... on
20. (a) S × V (× *to be*) × sub. Comp.	She seemed (to be) pleased.	seem, appear
(b) S × V × Sub. Comp.	She turned pale. He looks angry.	A large number of verbs. Some examples: become, come (true), fall, feel, get, go, grow, keep, look, run, turn, wear
21. S × V × Pro (noun) × Obj. Comp.	They named the baby John.	appoint, baptize, call, christen, crown, elect, make, name, nickname, nominate.
22. S × V × Pro (noun) × Adj.	He opened his mouth wide.	break, colour, cut, drive, dye, found, get, hammer, hold, keep, leave, lick, like, make, open, push, turn, wash, wipe.

Verb Patterns	Examples	Some verbs used
23. S × V × that—clause	He said that he liked it.	admit, be afraid, believe, confess, demand, deny, doubt, expect, explain, fear, feel, hear, hope, imagine, know, mean, notice, request, report, say, see, show, suggest, suppose, think, understand, wish
24. S × V × (Pro) noun × that—clause	I told her that it was wrong.	inform, promise, remind, teach, tell, warn
25. S × V × to × (Pro) noun × that—clause	She explained to them that she was looking for her friend.	admit, confess, explain, suggest
26. (a) S × V × *so*/not	'Is he coming?' 'I think so.' 'I hope not.'	believe, expect, hope, think, say, suppose
(b) *So* × S × V	'I have finished.' 'So I see.'	believe, hear, notice, think, see
27. S × V × Conjunc. × *to*-infin.	I don't know what to do/where to go/where to start/where to put it.	ask, decide, discover, explain, find out, forget, guess, hear, inquire, know, learn, remember, see, tell, understand, wonder
28. S × V × (Pro) noun × Conjunc. × to-infin.	He told them what to do/where to go/when to start/where to put it.	advise, ask, inform, show, teach, tell
29. S × V × Conjunc. × Clause	No one believes what I say. We haven't decided whether we shall go.	ask, believe, decide, discover, discuss, find out, imagine, know, say, show, suggest, tell, understand, wonder.
30. S × V × (Pro) noun × Conjunc. × Clause	I asked him what he wanted.	advise, ask, inform, show, teach, tell
31. *It* × *be* × Sub. Comp. × Subject	It is easy (for him) to do that.	to be
	(a) *distance* We walked (for) two miles.	A large number of verbs including: come, climb, crawl, creep, drive, fall, march, ride, roll, run, stretch
	(b) *duration* We waited (for) ten minutes. The journey took (us) ten days.	last, live, take, wait
	(c) *price* It cost two dollars.	charge, cost, earn
	(d) *weight* He weighs 150 pounds.	weigh

LIST B

Verb Patterns	Examples	Some verbs used
1. S × V × (Pro) noun ×	(a) They found the car abandoned. (b) I must get my hair cut. He had it mended.	feel, find, hear, like, make, prefer, see, want, wish, 'get' and 'have' are used in the pattern with the idea of causing something to be done.
2. S × V × (Pro) noun (× *to be*)	Everyone considered him (to be) a sensible boy.	believe, consider, feel, find, guess, imagine, judge, know, prove, suspect, think N.B. A common error is to add 'as' to this pattern.
3. It × V × Sub. Comp. × infinitive	It seemed useless to refuse.	appear, seem, (for *be* in this pattern see list A, V.P. 31)
4. It × V × Sub. Comp. × Gerund	It's no use trying to do that. It doesn't seem much good going on.	appear, be, seem
5. It × V × Sub. Comp. × Clause	It is a pity that it rained. It does not seem possible that the holidays are over.	appear, be seem
6. It × V × Clause	It seems that I was wrong. It does not matter when you do it.	appear, chance, happen, matter, seem
7. S × *be* × to-infin.	(a) *an arrangement:* The school is to have a holiday next week. They were to be married in April. (b) *an enquiry about someone's wishes:* Where are we to sit? At what time am I to come? (c) *obligation:* You are to begin tomorrow. (d) *possibility:* How am I to finish in time? No one was to be seen.	be
8. S × V × to-infin. (equivalent to a co-ordinate clause)	He awoke to find them gone. (He awoke and found them gone.) He had gone never to return. (He had gone and would never return.) I shudder to think of it. (I think of it and shudder.)	Too numerous to list.

Appendix III

Extracts from *The Threshold Level for Modern Language Learning in Schools* (Council of Europe 1978).

The following extracts are reproduced from the study by J A van Ek: *The Threshold Level for Modern Language Learning in Schools* published by Longman in 1978 for the Council of Europe.

The extracts exemplify a realistic methodological approach designed to enable a learner to function effectively in a second language and to meet the requirements of everyday living. The framework known as The Threshold Level is based on that originally developed to meet the needs of adult education and has been adapted by the author to the needs of pupils in schools.

The objective, it was decided, would

1 be such as to enable the great majority of pupils to reach it.
2 correspond to a minimum level of proficiency.
3 make possible communication, especially oral communication, with children or adults in the language studied.
4 be based on the exploitation of everyday real-life situations.
5 include a methodological initiation which would, on the one hand, facilitate continued study of the language and, on the other hand, make it possible to acquire a sufficient understanding of the learning-processes used, so that these may be profitably applied to the study of other languages.

The first extract specifies what the learner should be able to do with respect to basic topics, the second is an index of language-functions that the learner should be able to perform in the second language, and both extracts are reproduced by kind permission of the Council of Europe whose copyright is reserved.

Further information relating to the Council of Europe Modern Languages Project and its publications may be obtained from the Centre for Information on Language Teaching and Research (CILT), 20 Carlton House Terrace, London SW1Y 5AP. Tel: 01-839 2626/9.

Topic-related behaviour

1 Personal identification

Learners should be able to give information about themselves, and, if applicable, others, and to seek information from others, with regard to:

1.1 *name:* first name, initials, surname, spelling them out if required.
1.2 *address:* home address, spelling it out if required.
1.3 *telephone-number.*
1.4 *date and place of birth:* spelling out the place-name if required.
1.5 *age.*
1.6 *sex.*
1.7 *marital status.*
1.8 *nationality.*
1.9 *origin.*
1.10 *education:* what sort of education they have had, at what type of educational institution (general, vocational, primary, secondary, higher), how long, whether formal education has been completed or is continued, if continued for how long and at what type of educational institution.
1.11 *intended profession or occupation:* what they intend to do for a living after completing their formal education.
1.12 *family:* composition of family, family relations.
1.13 *ligion:* name of religion, if any.
1.14 *likes and dislikes:* especially with regard to people, hobbies and interests, food and drink.
1.15 *character, temperament, disposition:* general characterisation of other people.

2 House and home

Learners should be able to discuss where and under what conditions they and others live, specifically:

2.1 *types of accommodation:* describe the type of house, flat, etc., in which they live themselves, as well as those in the neighbourhood; seek similar information from others.
2.2 *accommodation, rooms:* describe their own accommodation, house, flat, etc., and the rooms in it, seek similar information from others.
2.3 *furniture, bedclothes:* mention and inquire about the availability of the most essential pieces of furniture and bedclothes.
2.4 *room:* say whether they have a room of their own or share one with others; describe their room or the room where they sleep; seek similar information from others.
2.5 *services:* say whether they have gas or electricity at home, how their house is heated, whether they are on the telephone; seek similar information from others.
2.6 *amenities:* say whether they have bath, shower, fridge, radio, TV, garage at home, and whether they have a garden.
2.7 *region:* characterise and inquire about the nature of their own region and that of others: agricultural, industrial, scenery, whether it is attractive or not, etc.
2.8 *flora and fauna:* characterise and inquire about flora and fauna of their own region and that of others.

3 Life at home

Learners should be able to exchange information about life at home specifically with regard to:

3.1 *family:* composition of their family.
3.2 *occupation of parents:* the nature of their parents' jobs.
3.3 *daily routines:* state at what times they usually get up and go to bed, at what times they have their meals, how they spend their evenings and weekends, how much homework they have; seek similar information from others.
3.4 *money:* say whether they have a spare-time job, if so what job, what working-hours, and how much they earn; how much pocket-money they have and what they do with it; seek similar information from others.
3.5 *pets:* say whether they have any pets, if not whether they would like to have them, what pets; seek similar information from others.

4 Education and future career

Learners should be able to exchange information about:

4.1 *schooling:* see 1.10 above.
4.2 *daily routines:* when school begins and ends; how many lessons and how long they last; break-times; when and where they have lunch; how much homework they get.
4.3 *school-year:* approximate dates and lengths of school-holidays.
4.4 *subjects:* which subjects they study; which subjects they like or dislike and why; which subjects they would like to study further; which subjects are compulsory and which are optional.
4.5 *recreation:* possibilities at school for taking part in games, sport or school clubs, their own preferences; other organised recreational activities such as school parties, celebrations, excursions, etc.
4.6 *examinations, diplomas:* which examinations they have taken or will take; whether they have ever passed or failed; what diplomas or certificates they intend to have.
4.7 *future career:* what they intend to be after completing their formal education; where they would like to work; what further training, if any, they will need; prospects of employment and income.

5 Free time, entertainment

Learners should be able to exchange information about:

5.1 *hobbies:* say what their hobbies are and inquire about those of others.
5.2 *interests:* say what their special interests are and in-

quire about those of others.

5.3 *radio, TV:* say whether they like watching TV, listening to the radio, which programmes they like particularly, which they dislike, and inquire about the preferences of others.

5.4 *cinema, theatre, opera, concert, etc.:* state own preferences and inquire about those of others, inquire about programmes and booking facilities, buy tickets, ask for the cloakroom, find their way.

5.5 *sport:* state own preferences and inquire about those of others, inquire about sporting events, buy tickets for stadium, etc., discuss result of a match.

5.6 *intellectual pursuits:* say whether they like reading and studying, whether they actually read or study in their spare time, if so, what; seek similar information from others.

5.7 *artistic pursuits:* say what forms of art they are interested in, if any; inquire about the preferences of others; give and seek information on the availability of public facilities: cinemas, theatres, museums, etc.

5.8 *museums, galleries, exhibitions:* say whether they are interested in museums, galleries, exhibitions, inquire about the interests of others; give and seek information on availability, price of tickets, opening-hours, etc.

5.9 *press:* say what they read regularly; newspapers, magazines, etc.; inquire about the preferences of others; inquire about the press in the foreign country.

6 Travel

Learners should be able to deal with various aspects of travelling:

6.1 *travel to school:* say how they get to school, what means of transport (if any), duration of journey; seek similar information from others.

6.2 *holidays:* say and inquire about where they and others normally spend their holidays and how long they last, how they spend them (camping, in youth hostels, hotels, etc.), with whom (friends, relatives, etc.); describe a previous holiday, where they went, how, with whom, for how long, where they stayed, what the weather was like, what they saw, what they did, give their general impressions and say whether they enjoyed the holiday and would go again, describe their plans for a future holiday and seek similar information from others; say whether they have been in the foreign language country, seek similar information from foreigners with respect to their own country; say which foreign country (countries) they would particularly like to vist and why, seek similar information from others.

6.3 *countries and places:* characterise countries, places and regions; say something about their size, where they are situated and in what surroundings; mention possibilities for sight-seeing in their own neighbourhood; seek similar information from others, what to visit and how.

6.4 *public transport:* ask how to get to a place by public transport, give information on this to others; buy tickets; inquire about lost property; discuss times of arrival and departure; discuss routes; discuss restaurant refreshment facilities; (optional: understand the commonest public announcements).

6.5 *private transport:* obtain and give information about routes, types of roads, traffic rules, parking facilities, car-maintenance facilities, (optional: documents, road-sign texts).

6.6 *entering and leaving a country:* (optional: state whether they wish to declare anything at the customs; inquire about documents needed; ask about import-regulations); state reasons for visiting foreign country, duration of stay; fill in forms if required when entering or leaving the foreign language country; give personal information (cf. 1); change money.

6.7 *nationalities:* state own nationality and inquire about that of others.

6.8 *languages:* say which foreign languages they speak, understand, read, write; say something about their level of proficiency; say what experiences they had, how they have learned them, how easy/difficult they think they are, whether they intend to continue learning foreign languages, whether they need or expect to need them much; seek similar information from others.

6.9 *hotel, youth-hostel, camping-site, etc.:* inquire about availability and nature of accommodation (single room, double room, dormitory), situation of rooms or camping-site, amenities, view; discuss terms and prices; fill in registration-forms; ask about meal-times, closing-time; ask for key; inquire about laundry facilities.

6.10 *travel-documents:* (optional: ask what documents are needed; inquire about how to obtain visa, insurance, tickets).

6.11 *fares:* inquire about fares, price reductions, single and return, children and adults.

6.12 *tickets:* obtain tickets and pay for them.

6.13 *luggage:* ask for one's luggage by identifying it; inquire about lost property office.

6.14 *traffic:* ask about traffic-rules, especially one-way streets, parking, speed limits; give information on same subjects; (optional: understand commonly used texts on traffic-signs).

7. Relations with other people

Learners should be able to deal with various aspects of social life:

7.1 *friendship, aversion:* say what people they like or dislike; seek similar information from others.

7.2 *invitations and appointments:* (optional: invite others for a visit, a meal, a drink, private or public entertainment; accept and decline such invitations; make an appointment, fix a time and place to meet, make arrangements to call for someone).

7.3 *correspondence:* say whether they correspond with foreign language speakers, with whom, about what, how frequently; seek similar information from others; ask for writing materials, notepaper, postcards.

7.4 *club-membership:* say whether they are members of any clubs, if so what clubs and what activities; seek information from others about the same subject.

7.5 *politics (and optional: social security):* (optional: say something about their political views, whether they support a political party); say what sort of government their own country has; (optional: say something about social security in their own country, especially old-age pensions and medical care); seek similar information from others.

8 Health and welfare

Learners should be able to deal with various aspects of health and welfare:

8.1 *parts of the body:* refer to some parts of the body where simple gesture does not suffice to locate the source of pain, disorders, etc.

8.2 *ailments, accidents:* report illness, injury, accident; say whether they have been ill before and whether they have been operated upon; say whether they have to take medicine regularly, if so, what medicine.

8.3 *personal comfort:* say whether they are comfortable or the reverse, whether they are hungry, tired, ill or sell, want to rest; inquire about the same subjects.

8.4 *hygiene:* inquire about bathing, washing, hairdressing facilities; ask for articles of personal hygiene.

8.5 *insurance:* (optional: say whether they are insured or not, against what risks, if so where; inquire about the same subjects).

8.6 *medical services:* inquire about medical facilities, surgery hours, conditions of treatment; make an appointment with a doctor, a dentist, at a hospital; buy medicine at a chemist's; answer a doctor's questions; make clear to a doctor what is wrong.

8.7 *emergency services:* ask for the police or the fire department; ask for an ambulance, a doctor; (optional: ask for the consul).

9 Shopping

Learners should be able to deal with various aspects of shopping:

9.1 *shopping facilities:* ask for and give information about supermarkets, shopping-centres, markets, shops (baker, butcher, etc.); ask in a shop whether particular goods are available, ask to see them, find out how much they cost, ask to be shown something cheaper, better, different, pay for goods bought, be familiar with expressions of quantity, weight, and with the money in the foreign country.

9.2 *foodstuffs:* ask for the more common foodstuffs.

9.3 *clothes, fashion:* ask for the more common articles of clothing and articles of personal use; ask for specific colours and materials.

9.4 *smoking:* (optional: ask for smoker's requisites).

9.5 *household articles:* ask for the more common household-articles, particularly those most likely to be needed by a visitor to a foreign country.

9.6 *medicine:* ask for chemist's; buy medicines against common physical disorders.

9.7 *prices:* inquire about prices, discounts, method of payment; say whether price is convenient, (too) high or (too) low.

9.8 *weights and measures:* discuss size and weight in general terms (big, small, heavy, light, etc.) and in terms of the commonest standard weights and measures in the foreign language community and in their own.

10 Food and drink

Learners should be able to deal with some aspects of eating and drinking:

10.1 *types of food and drink:* ask for the more common foodstuffs in a shop; order a meal in a restaurant, cafeteria, snack-bar, canteen, etc., refer to the menu, say what meal they want, what they want to eat, (optional: how it should be prepared: boiled, fried, etc.); express likes and dislikes when enjoying private hospitality; seek similar information from others.

10.2 *places where you eat and drink:* ask about places where one can eat and drink; give information to others about same subject; order food and drink (see 10.1 above); ask for the bill; paying and tipping.

11. Services

Learners should be able to make use of a number of important services and help others to use them:

11.1 *post:* give and seek information about where the post-office is, where a letter box is, inquire about postage for letters and parcels; buy stamps; inquire about poste restante.

11.2 *telephone:* give and seek information about where phone-calls can be made; ask someone to ring them up; tell others they will ring them up; ask if they can make a call; ask for a telephone-number and give their own; ask for coins.

11.3 *telegraph:* send a telegram; ask when it will arrive; inquire about the price.

11.4 *bank:* give and seek information about where the nearest bank is, where foreign money can be changed; change money at a bank, (optional: cash a cheque: say whether and, if so, where they have an account).

11.5 *police:* give and seek information about where the nearest polic-station is; report a loss or a theft; pay a fine.

11.6 *hospital surgery:* (see "Health and welfare" medical services, above).

11.7 *repairs:* give and seek information about where things can be repaired; ask for things to be repaired.

11.8 *garage:* give and seek information about where the nearest garage is; report a breakdown; ask for technical help.

11.9 *petrol-station:* give and seek information about where the nearest petrol-station is: (optional: buy petrol, have oil, water and tyres checked).

12 Places

Learners should be able to ask the way and to give strangers directions; they should be able to refer to a map, and to state and inquire about distances.

13 Foreign launguage

Learners should be able to discuss the use of a foreign language:

13.1 *ability:* say how well they speak, understand, read, write, a foreign language, whether they consider it easy or difficult; seek similar information from others.

13.2 *understanding:* ask what things are called; ask what phrases, words, etc., mean; ask someone to speak slowly, clearly, to repeat something, to explain what he means.

13.3 *correctness:* ask whether something is correct; ask someone to correct mistakes; ask how something is pronounced.

14 Weather

Learners should be able to discuss the weather:

14.1 *climate:* characterise the climate in their own country and in the foreign country (if they know it); inquire about the climate in the foreign country.

14.2 *weather-conditions:* describe weather-conditions in the four seasons in their own country, and, as far as known, in the foreign country; inquire about weather conditions in the foreign country.

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Teaching Chinese Children

A Teacher's Guide

The Nuffield Chinese Children's project was set up in response to the concern expressed by many people about the problems facing the 20,000 or so Chinese children in British schools. The Chinese population in Britain is geographically dispersed and Chinese children were finding their way, in ones and twos, into schools which in many cases had little or no experience of dealing with non-English speaking pupils. Teachers in these schools were conscious of their lack of knowledge of the backgrounds of their Chinese pupils. They expressed a desire to know more about suitable techniques and materials for teaching English to pupils for whom it was not the first language and they wanted to know more about the source of their pupils' language difficulties.

This book is an attempt to give some practical guidance in these three areas. The Introduction outlines some of the problems facing the Chinese community and describes the philosophy behind the project and this book. Chapter 1 describes in more detail the background of the Chinese community in Britain and its relationship to life in Hong Kong, the country of origin of most Chinese in Britain. Chapter 2 contains a wealth of information about methods, materials and techniques for teaching English as a second language. Chapter 3 explains some of the linguistic difficulties facing Cantonese speakers attempting to learn English. Finally, an Appendix contains the primary and secondary syllabuses for English used in Hong Kong.

The book should also be of value to teachers with Vietnamese speakers in their classes, as Vietnamese has much in common with Cantonese. It includes a section on the background to the Vietnamese in Britain and notes on important points of difference between Cantonese and Vietnamese.

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